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RURAL SOCIOLOGY

Devoted to *Scientific Study* of Rural Life

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No. 1

Dwight Sanderson—Social Builder.....W. A. Anderson

Dwight Sanderson—Social Scientist.....Carl C. Taylor

Dwight Sanderson—Group.....Howard W. Beers and John H. Kolb

Dwight Sanderson—Family.....Robert G. Foster

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Notes by Alexander Joss.....Edited by Paul H. Landis

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CONTENTS

	PAGE
<i>Dwight Sanderson, Rural Social Builder.</i> By W. A. Anderson....	7
<i>Dwight Sanderson, Social Scientist.</i> By Carl C. Taylor.....	14
<i>Group Classification: Dwight Sanderson's Contribution.</i> By Howard W. Beers and John H. Kolb.....	23
<i>The Family.</i> By Robert G. Foster.....	35
<i>The Concept of the Community.</i> By Douglas Ensminger and Robert A. Polson.....	43
<i>Notes.</i> Edited by Paul H. Landis.....	52
<i>Relation of Irrigation to Population.</i> By Alexander Joss.....	52
<i>Current Bulletin Reviews.</i> Edited by Conrad Taeuber.....	55
<i>Book Reviews.</i> Edited by Howard W. Beers.....	64
Chernick and Hellickson, <i>Guaranteed Annual Wages.</i> By James M. Stepp	64
Barnes and Ruedi, <i>The American Way of Life.</i> By George F. Theriault	66
London, <i>Backgrounds of Conflict.</i> By Roy E. Hyde.....	67
Lewisohn, <i>Human Leadership in Industry.</i> By T. G. Standing.....	68
McMillen, <i>Community Organization for Social Welfare.</i> By Robert A. Polson	68
Simmons, <i>The Role of the Aged in Primitive Society.</i> By Judson T. Landis	69
Shannon, <i>The Farmer's Last Frontier.</i> By Edmund deS. Brunner.....	70
Embree, <i>The Japanese Nation.</i> By Oscar Lewis.....	70

Merriman, <i>Systematic Politics</i> . By J. E. Reeves	71
Shepard, <i>Food or Famine</i> . By Bruce L. Melvin	72
Harris, <i>Price and Related Controls in the United States</i> . By G. W. Forster	73
Sherman, <i>Intelligence and Its Deviations</i> . By Edgar A. Schuler	74
Koenig, <i>Principles for Peace</i> . By Robert W. Harrison	75
Carr, <i>Nationalism and After</i> . By Charles R. Hoffer	75
Chatto and Halligan, <i>The Story of the Springfield Plan</i> . By Mary L. deGive	76
Steiner, <i>Where do People Take Their Troubles?</i> By Fred R. Yoder....	77
American Council on Education, <i>Education for Use of Regional Resources</i> . By Robert I. Kutak	77
Duvall and Hill, <i>When You Marry</i> . By Roy H. Holmes	78
Mustard, <i>Government in Public Health</i> . By R. E. Teague	79
Gunn and Platt, <i>Voluntary Health Agencies</i> . By Robert L. McNamara	79
Young, <i>Scientific Social Surveys and Research</i> . By Walter C. McKain, Jr.	80
Harris, <i>Economic Problems of Latin America</i> . By T. Lynn Smith	81
Smith, <i>The Church in Our Town</i> . By Paul L. Vogt	82
Stegner, <i>One Nation</i> . By Harold F. Kaufman	82
Pearson, <i>Country Flavor</i> . By Howard W. Beers	83
Schwartz, <i>Seasonal Farm Labor in the United States</i> . By Carl F. Reuss	83
<i>News Notes and Announcements</i> . Edited by Leland B. Tate....	85

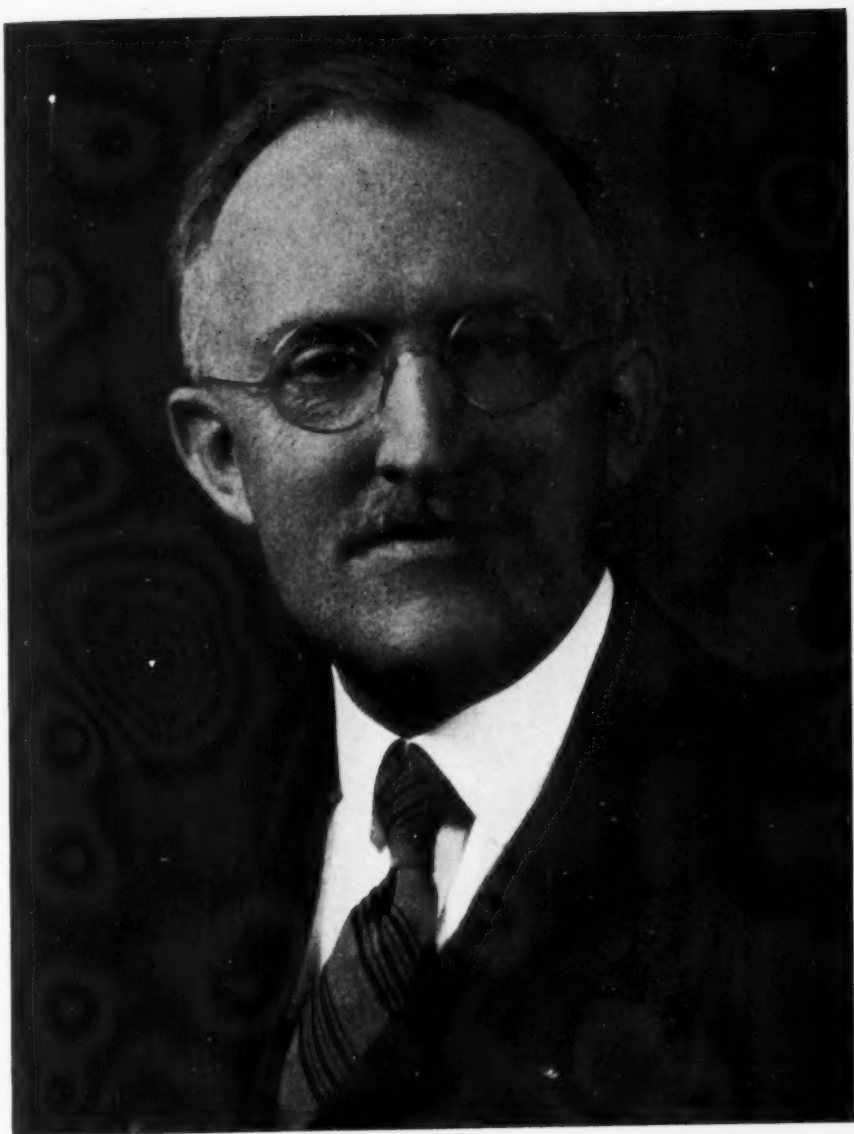
The Dwight Sanderson Memorial Number

A WORD concerning this issue of RURAL SOCIOLOGY is in order. Bruce Melvin, for many years closely associated with Sanderson at Cornell, was the first to suggest that one issue of RURAL SOCIOLOGY be devoted to articles concerned with the life and work of Dwight Sanderson. At the 1945 annual meeting of the Rural Sociological Society in Chicago we called together all former students of Sanderson, who were present, to determine what form the memorial should take. At this meeting it was decided that a series of articles should be written. A delegation then requested that Carl Taylor and Lowry Nelson organize the issue and get the manuscripts in. To these two men, neither of whom were students of Sanderson but both of whom were among his closest friends, should go the credit of organizing this issue. All those who contributed papers except John Kolb and Carl Taylor were former students of Sanderson.

Originally we planned to have one of those who knew Dwight Sanderson and his works best, organize an integrated article which would analyze Sanderson's conceptual scheme and contributions and relate them to those of other outstanding sociologists. We thought that the more critical, objective, scientific and devoid of feeling this article could have been, the more Sanderson would have appreciated it and the more useful it would have been. Such a procedure might have avoided duplications and other weaknesses of the present issue but it would not have been as effective in revealing the true esteem in which his friends and students held him.

CHARLES P. LOOMIS
C. HORACE HAMILTON





DWIGHT SANDERSON, 1878-1944



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Dwight Sanderson, Rural Social Builder

By W. A. Anderson†

My first personal contact with Dwight Sanderson took place sixteen years ago when I came to Cornell to complete work for the Doctorate under his direction. I have been an intimate associate of his for each of the succeeding years until his death. In the first year I gained an impression that deepened with the years of companionship. I came to know him then, as I know him now, a man with a dominant passion for the building of a better rural life through the development of the science of rural sociology.

Dr. Sanderson, or "Chief" as we affectionately called him, never told me much about his parents or his life before he went away to college and I never made specific inquiry. I learned that his father had been a minister and that Dwight was born at Clio, Michigan, while his father was serving a pastorate there. I also learned that he spent his early days in Michigan and was an alumnus of Michigan Agricultural College, getting a bachelor of science degree from that institution in 1897. But his parents must have been strong believers in the devotion of one's life to work for others. Not only did "Chief" spend his whole career of over 40 years in such activities, but his two younger brothers have been engaged in social and religious work for the whole of

their lives. This parental stimulus must have been a foundation stone for his final, major purpose, the development of a fine rural life through the science of rural society.

Career as Entomologist

One of the most interesting things to me about Dr. Sanderson's career is that it arrived at its final goal through a process of long time development. The "Chief" did not begin his career of work for others in the broad human field where he finally completed his work. He started out to be an economic entomologist, hoping to aid others by helping to solve some of these problems. After he graduated from Michigan State, he came to Cornell and obtained a second bachelor's degree. While at Cornell, he was a student of and assistant to Professor J. G. Needham, one of Cornell's famous entomologists, who has often facetiously remarked that Dr. Sanderson was "a case of a fine entomologist gone wrong."

That Dr. Sanderson was "a fine entomologist" is proven by his record in this field. He left Cornell in 1898 and went to the Maryland Agricultural College as Assistant State Entomologist. In the fall of 1899 he became entomologist at the Delaware Agricultural Experiment Station, where he remained until 1902. In 1902 he became entomologist of the

† Professor of Rural Sociology, Cornell University.

State of Texas and professor of entomology in the Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College. After two years in Texas, he became professor of zoology at New Hampshire College, now the University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire. After three years as professor of zoology, he became the director of the Agricultural Experiment Station at that institution. In the fall of 1910, "Chief" went to West Virginia to be Dean of the College of Agriculture and the Director of the Agricultural Experiment Station, where he remained until 1915. It is clear from these steps that he made steady progress as an entomologist, rising from his first job, as an assistant to a position as chief entomologist for a state in the course of five years and then continuing on to administer entomological work on a state-wide basis.

During the time he was an active entomologist, he constantly carried on research and continuously published the results of this work. His material began to appear in 1898 in scientific journals, magazines, and bulletins and not a year passed between 1898 and 1916 without a number of them being published. Work on aphids, san jose scale, the codling moth, the cotton boll weevil, to name only a few, found their way into print. In all, these articles and bulletins numbered almost one hundred

During this same period, he was the author or joint author of four books. The first appeared in 1902. It

was entitled *Insects Injurious to Staple Crops*. Ten years later *Insect Pests of Farm, Garden and Orchard* was published, followed shortly by an *Elementary Entomology* co-authored with C. F. Jackson. In 1916, with L. M. Peairs, he presented *School Entomology*.

When his work in entomology is considered, one fact stands out, the Chief wanted his exact science to help people. To control insects so as to achieve more production for better family living was his goal. He achieved it to a high degree.

That his colleagues in entomology recognized his ability and deep purpose is confirmed by the fact that, in 1910, they made him president of the American Association of Economic Entomologists. He had shown an interest in the organizational affairs of this Association and made an important contribution to it by developing and presenting a practical plan for the financing of its journal, of which he was business manager from 1908 until 1911. Further evidence of his purpose to help others is shown by the interest he took in the movement to standardize insecticides and to require their accurate labeling. This activity culminated in the Federal Insecticide Act. For two decades, therefore, he was devoted to economic entomology and became a nationally known leader in this field.

A College Administrator

It has already been noted that while at the University of New

Hampshire, the Chief began to be involved in agricultural college administration as Director of the Experiment Station. He was called to West Virginia in 1910 to serve for five years as Dean of its College of Agriculture and as Director of its Agricultural Experiment Station. These duties took him away more and more from his entomological projects and brought him increasingly in touch with the problems of human relationships. To guide a College of Agriculture in its total service for the rural people of a state made him very conscious of the social and economic problems involved as well as those of technical agriculture.

But there was another contributing factor to the development of what eventuated in a final determination to leave administrative work and to devote himself to the social problems of rural life. The Chief had married Anna Cecilia Blandford shortly after he went to Maryland to begin his first job in entomology. Cecilia Blandford was a farm girl who became a rural school teacher. Her constant interest in and contacts with rural problems kept Dwight Sanderson always face to face with social issues, so that the family background out of which he came and the family situation which he himself established worked quietly but effectively to push him into this new and unchartered field. It seemed almost inevitable, therefore, that, in spite of 20 years in an exact science field, he would decide to prepare himself for work in Sociology and social relationships. This decision he made

in 1916. In 1917, while still a national figure in entomology and college administration, he enrolled as a graduate student of sociology at the University of Chicago.

Rural Sociologist

Sometimes in one's lighter moments, one is tempted to believe in fate or predestination. Many a wise ancient Greek would have said it was fate that brought Dwight Sanderson and Albert R. Mann to Chicago to study sociology at the same time and even to live in adjoining apartments. But most of us will probably conclude that it was just an accident. Whatever it was, it was a most important factor in the Chief's life.

Liberty Hyde Bailey had decided that the College of Agriculture at Cornell should make the study of the Human Problems of Rural Life a major objective. Albert R. Mann had grown up with Dr. Bailey and was his close associate and secretary of the College. Mann had absorbed Bailey's enthusiasm for the human side of agriculture and so he accepted appointment as professor of rural sociology and head of a new Department of Rural Social Organization, the first such department to be established in a college of agriculture. But fate or whatever it is, decided that Albert R. Mann, after his work at Chicago, should return to Cornell, not as professor of rural sociology but as Dean of the College of Agriculture. Cornell, then, needed a professor of rural sociology and a head to develop the program of this new department.

Sanderson was Mann's selection to come to Cornell in this capacity. He arrived on October the fifteenth, 1918 and spent, thereafter, exactly 25 years in this post.

a. Scientific Contributions to Rural Sociology

What were the accomplishments of this quarter of a century given to the new and undeveloped field? I will cite a number. None will be more important to my way of thinking than his passionate devotion and his specific contributions to the building of rural sociology as a science. This was the keynote of all his work. His previous educational background was in an exact science. When he came into rural sociology, he made the search for the principles by which the phenomena of rural life operate, his major goal. Now he was not simply desirous of describing the structure and functioning of rural phenomena for their own sake; he said, and I know that it was his theme through his whole career as a rural sociologist: "The sociology of rural life is especially concerned with the structure and functioning of the various types of social groups, and the application of these scientific data to social organization." This statement came in the early days of his career and when he published his final book in this field in 1942, he gave it the title, "Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization." He always held that a good rural social organization could not be built except as it was founded on sound principles.

The Chief, therefore, set out to contribute to a science. His first question was, "What are the phenomena of rural life and how may they be described?" Taking a clue from the work of Galpin, and getting support from the theory of Simmel, he laid his foundation in the study of the social group, especially the locality groups, the community and the neighborhood. Between 1918 and 1921, he made an exhaustive study of the history of the rural community which he presented as his Doctor's dissertation to the University of Chicago in 1921 and which was published later in book form under the title, *The Rural Community: The Natural History of a Sociological Group*. This was the spring board for the most intensive research he did. For about 15 years, he and his graduate students conducted researches describing the community patterns of New York rural counties. He summarized and synthesized this work in an important Cornell University Experiment station bulletin: *Rural Social and Economic Areas in Central New York*.

Another significant scientific contribution has to do with the Social Group. If, he reasoned, the social group is the most general structural form in a society, then sociology cannot advance far as a science, until it describes and classifies groups. To this he also devoted much study. He conducted for a number of years a graduate seminar on the structural characteristics and classification of different types of social groups. He

published several journal papers on Group Description and Group Classification. He urged his students to work in this area of sociology as one basic and most promising. Because of this intensive, long-time work, the Chief has made a most substantial contribution to the construction of a real scientific rural sociology.

b. Social Welfare

But I must not lose sight in my enthusiasm for this scientific work, of the fact that my colleague also contributed to practical rural social organization and welfare. Again, I repeat, he wanted to help rural people. Science must be the foundation. But practical programs were possible. Early, therefore, in his work at Cornell he developed the extension division of the department with programs of community organization, rural recreation, rural dramatics, leadership training for youth and adult organizations, and many others. Early in his sociological career he published a small book, *The Farmer and His Community*, the thesis of which is that farm folks should work together in their local community for a better social and economic life. This thesis he expanded in a later volume with his associate, Robert Polson, titled *Rural Community Organization*. This is a volume of practical suggestions on how and what to do in rural community work. Perhaps his most significant emphasis in this area was on the development of the centralized school as the chief integrating force in the natural rural communities of the country.

c. Work with Students

"The just man passeth away but his light remaineth" says an ancient book. This is true of Chief. His light remains, particularly in his graduate students. As the years of teaching and research rolled by for him at Cornell the number of men and women who came to study with him increased at a rapid rate, and when his quarter of a century was done, 40 persons had received doctorates, many had obtained master's diplomas, and a host had been in his classes. I was tempted to name some of these students, tell what they have been doing in Rural Sociology and state where they are working, but I cannot name them all, and since omissions would leave out many who are achieving magnificently, I will only say that they are now operating in the colleges of agriculture, the United States Department of Agriculture, in many national organizations in this country, and in many foreign lands, as teachers, research workers and extension specialists in rural sociology, so that his influence is extended throughout the world. I cannot refrain from telling that, just as I was in the midst of writing this last sentence, a man with a Ph.D. from the University of Edinburgh who had been a Resident Doctor under Sanderson in 1937, came into my office to get a recommendation for a renewal of this privilege for the 1945-46 academic year. Since his year of post-doctoral work, he has been teaching and doing extension work in rural sociology at Beirut, Syria, spreading

the influence of the Chief into the rural areas of that land. This illustration could be multiplied many times, for there are men and women in India, China, Africa, South America, and many European countries who are spreading his work.

Dwight Sanderson's influence on students was not because he was an inspiring lecturer. He could not spell bind. But he was an excellent discussion leader, incisive, kindly, critical, and always constructive, with the ability to get students to think for themselves and to have confidence in their thinking. So they came to him, somewhat tremblingly at times, but always with the feeling that they would be helped.

d. Writings in Rural Sociology

The Chief began to write in the field of Rural Sociology immediately after he began to study the subject. While at the University of Chicago, and looking forward to his ultimately teaching rural sociology, he made a study of the "Teaching of Rural Sociology, particularly in the Land-Grant Colleges and Universities." He published the results in the January, 1917 issue of the *American Journal of Sociology*. This was his first article in the new field, but, as in entomology, not a year passed after 1917, without many productions from his pen. In all they include five books, 17 research bulletins, chiefly from the Experiment Station at Cornell, 48 articles in scientific journals and magazines, and a list of reports, proceedings, and book reviews number-

ing in the sixties. His last published writing was a review of Liberty Hyde Bailey's *The Holy Earth*, appearing in the September, 1943 issue of RURAL SOCIOLOGY. This book had been reprinted in early 1943 through the efforts of the Christian Rural Fellowship and Dr. Sanderson's last written message was to urge rural pastors, educators, and sociologists to study it for "it is a deeply religious book, and because it combines religious perception with a practical philosophy of human behavior and procedure."

Someone once asked me which of the Chief's writings in rural sociology would be the most enduring. Of course, one cannot answer such a question. But if I were to select several that I think will influence rural sociology for a long time, I would pick his three books, *The Rural Community*, *Rural Community Organization* and *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*, together with his research bulletin, *Rural Social and Economic Areas in Central New York* and a journal article, "Scientific Research in Rural Sociology."

e. Organizational Activities

A person with the point of view that dominated Dr. Sanderson would have to participate in the wider activities influencing American Country Life. Chief did more than his share of work in these areas. The first such relationship that stands out is with the American Country Life Association. When this organization came into being in 1919, he became a member of its Board of Directors and

later its Secretary. He worked with the organization for many years and was its President in 1938. A particularly constructive thing which he did in this organization was his editorship of the volume, *Farm Income and Farm Life*. This is a series of thoughtful papers on the relation of social and economic factors in rural progress and still has much to contribute to a better rural life.

When the rural sociologists were few in number and needed the stimulus of mutual association, Sanderson helped to organize the Rural Sociology Section of the American Sociological Society and was the first chairman of this sectional group. After the rural sociologists increased in number to the point where they felt the need for a separate organization to promote their common interests, although Dr. Sanderson was at first opposed to separation from the American Sociological Society, he yielded to the desires of his colleagues and helped to organize the Rural Sociological Society and to establish its journal, *RURAL SOCIOLOGY*. He was elected the first president of this organization and did much to insure its success.

But the Chief did not lessen his interest and activity in the parent sociological society. He worked on its committees, presided at its conferences and prepared papers for presentation at its sessions. That his sociological colleagues considered him one of their number is attested by the fact that he was elected President of the American Sociological Association for 1942.

Dr. Sanderson served on practically every major committee planning for expansions or developments in rural sociological research, extension or teaching and wrote or assisted in preparing the reports that presented policies and planning during 1918 to 1943. During 1933 he went to Washington to organize the social research division of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and was instrumental in working out a system of cooperative research in rural social welfare problems between the States and the Federal government.

f. Activities as a Local Citizen

One would be justified in concluding that a person who was as busily engaged in his professional activities as the Chief would have little time to participate in the activities of his local community. But this is not true. Chief believed in the development of the local community as the means for getting a better life for all the people. Therefore, he played his role as a good citizen. His principal interests in the city of Ithaca where Cornell is located, included several organizations. He was a director for many years of the Social Service League which operates two settlement houses in the community. He worked on the Boards of the Family Society, the local Red Cross, the Community Chest, and the Council of Social Agencies. He organized the Town and County Social Workers' Club. These public activities suggests how broad his community interests were and show how much his usefulness was recognized by his fellow citizens.

g. Personal Characteristics

What manner of man was this person who attained eminence in two distinct fields of science, a thing rarely achieved in one lifetime, and at the same time performed so many public services, both on a national and local basis?

My years of almost daily meeting with him made me vividly aware that he was always quietly serious. The problems of rural life and of society in general were in his mind at all times and he was always ardently working at some of them, trying to add his stint to their solution. As a result, while he possessed a cordial kindliness, at times he seemed overly serious. He was never humorous. I do not remember hearing him tell a funny story or relate a comical inci-

dent. I recall that when he was an after-dinner speaker at an annual sociological society meeting and followed several men who related humorous stories or described funny situations, he stated frankly that he could not be witty and went on to give a thoughtful, earnest talk on the fields of research in sociology.

I certainly do not want to give the impression that my friend was morose. He was never that. He was a man of genuine good-will and warm friendliness, so that his students, colleagues, and friends loved to visit in his home. To me he was a true social builder who possessed what the Chinese teacher said the true social builder must have, the head of the scientist, the hand of the farmer, and the heart of the religious devotee.

Dwight Sanderson—Social Scientist

By Carl C. Taylor†

It is my conviction that Dwight Sanderson was one of the most scientific sociologists of all time. That this is not more widely recognized is probably due to two things—that he worked in the field of rural sociology with which so-called “high power” sociologists are not too familiar, and that the vast majority of sociologists have not been concerned primarily

with the patient and painstaking type of work required to develop a science. Sanderson came into the field of sociology with a training and experience in exact science and brought with him not only an appreciation but an exact knowledge of scientific methods. He began immediately, and never ceased, to use that knowledge and training in social research and in his teaching and writing. A discussion of his research work needs to be preceded by somewhat of a recital of the

† Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

theories and methods by which all of his efforts were directed.

His first theoretical wrestling with the problem of social science was in his doctor's dissertation, *The Rural Community: The Natural History of a Sociological Group*, published in 1921,¹ and in his first sociology research bulletin, *The Social Areas of Otsego County, New York* (with Warren Thompson joint author), published in 1923.² His most systematic presentation of theory and methods was, "Group Description" and "A Preliminary Group Classification Based on Structure."³

For 25 years he worked systematically to make a definitive contribution to the development of scientific sociology, presenting his theory of scientific methods in various articles, in the research of himself and students and in his graduate seminars. Fortunately, his location at an Agricultural Experiment Station, where he could do field social research, made it possible to practice what he preached and a large body of graduate students not only made it possible for him to train them in scientific methods but guide them in a great many concrete field studies.

Sanderson believed that the first step in any scientific analysis is "to describe and classify phenomena" and last step is "a consideration of the significance of scientific findings for

constructive use." He did not, however, confuse or even mix, means and ends in either his thinking or work. The means is science and science is method; the ends is human welfare and depends on science, plus many other things. He believed that one need have no difficulty in selecting fields for social analysis which are also areas of social welfare. Once such a field is selected, even specifically because it is an area of social welfare concern, it must be analyzed by the most rigid and valid methods of science. Immediately after he entered the field of sociology he began wrestling with the issues of what are the basic social phenomena and how can they be scientifically analyzed. He believed that "forms of human association," groups, constituted basic social phenomena, were significant in human welfare and were susceptible of scientific analysis. He set himself the task of making a systematic contribution in this field. Because his laboratory was rural life or rural society he worked on the analysis of rural groups.

He did not attempt to delimit completely the field of sociology but starting with two concepts which are, so to speak, axiomatic, viz., "The objective of any science is a description of its phenomena" and, quoting Lundberg, "The explanation of social groupings and their behavior as groups is generally regarded as the basic problem of sociology,"⁴ he set the issue as follows: "Until we take the trouble to describe different kinds

¹ The University of Chicago Abstracts of Theses, Humanistic Series, Vol. II, 1921.

² Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, Bulletin 422 (July, 1923).

³ *Social Forces*, XVI (March, 1938), 309-19, and XVII (December, 1938), 196-201.

⁴ "Group Description," *op. cit.*, p. 309.

of groups with the same care that a biologist describes a species, genus, or family of plant or animal life, we shall fail to have any adequate understanding of the nature of groups."⁵ He had much earlier written, "If we are to have a scientific knowledge of these (human) groups, we must first be able to identify them, which will involve a knowledge of those characteristics of structure which make possible their identification."⁶ In "Group Description" he elaborated on this necessity of identification but showed that it was only the first step in accurate and analytical description. His generalized statements were, "The discovery of the categories which encompass the various characteristic forms of group behavior and their logical arrangement, is a task which must be undertaken before we can have a complete outline of group description. . . . As in other sciences, the purpose of description and classification is not mere taxonomy, but to bring out differences of structure associated with differences of behavior which will enable us to better understand the behavior and to be able to predict what it will be under given conditions." The basic categories of group description presented in this article⁷ were: I. Identity, II. Composition, III. Inter-group relationships, IV. Intra-group relationships, V. Structure and mechanism. From 3 to 13 sub-categories were

listed under each broad category for the purpose of guaranteeing precision of identification and description and comparability in various analyses.

In his article, "A Preliminary Group Classification Based on Structure," and in his and Foster's, "A Sociological Case Study of Farm Families," Sanderson revealed clearly that he was concerned primarily with scientific methodology, not with a philosophical or reform doctrine of society. In the latter article he said, ". . . we have taken the position held in a previous paper (Scientific Research in Rural Sociology) that sociology is a study of human association and factors influencing the evolution, development, structure, and functioning of the various forms. Under this term 'forms of human association' we would include not only various types of groups, but also the established forms of human association created by these groups, including human institutions such as marriage, naturalization, burial, and so on. . . ." Thus was undertaken a study of farm families which included their classification into "types" by means of careful description.⁸ This was typical of all of Sanderson's research. No sociologist was ever more consistent and more persistent in using what he believed to be methods of analysis which would help to build a body of scientific knowledge.

That he did not select groups as the objects of his research merely because he thought he saw an easy way to analyze them by the methods

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 311.

⁶ "Scientific Research in Rural Sociology," *The American Journal of Sociology*, XXXII (September, 1927), 181.

⁷ "Group Description," *op. cit.*, pp. 318-19.

⁸ *The Family*, XI (June, 1930), 107-14.

of science is indicated in the first book he wrote, *The Rural Community*, published ten years after it was written. He stated a welfare purpose as his objective. He said, that his "object" was "to secure a knowledge of the forces and principles which influence the formation, persistence, and decline of various types of locality groups,"⁹ but he also said "The form of the rural community changes, but a locality which makes possible the satisfaction of their primary interests is essential for the social organization of an agricultural people."¹⁰ During his professional career he studied and stimulated the study of other types of rural social groups but his consistent and systematic study of rural locality groups was a demonstration of type of work and specialization which explained him as a scientist. In the twenty-five years he was head of the Department of Rural Organization at Cornell University, he was author or joint author of 13 field research studies, 8 of which were studies of various aspects of rural locality groups. Probably most outstanding among these was, *Rural Social and Economic Areas in Central New York*, which was published midway in his career as a sociologist.¹¹

It is more a commentary on other sociologists than on Sanderson that he came to be thought of as one who was interested only in locality groups

and especially in the rural community. I knew him exceedingly well and think I know exactly why he specialized so sharply. He was interested in the analysis of other than community locality groups and was deeply interested in other than structural analysis. He was, however, convinced that sociology would never gain the rank of science by argument; that it would not develop on the basis of episodic research, in the process of which each researcher selected an object of passing interest and attempted to study it by some new and clever methods of analysis. He was convinced that the basic and well tested methods of science were usable in analyzing social phenomena but it would require detailed, painstaking work to accomplish such analyses and thus require specialization on the part of sociologists. He selected social groups as his special object of study, largely narrowed his field to community and then further narrowed it to rural locality groups. Because he did this, no rural sociologist, and probably no sociologist, has in the last 25 years made so concrete and detailed a contribution to the science of sociology as he did through his own work and that of his students.¹²

⁹ *The Rural Community* (Ginn and Company, 1932), p. v, preface.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 666.

¹¹ Cornell Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin 559 (Ithaca, New York, May, 1933).

¹² See especially: *Locating the Rural Community*, N. Y. State Col. of Agric., Cornell Reading Course for the Farm Lesson 158, (Ithaca, N. Y., June, 1920), pp. 415-36; with Warren S. Thompson, *The Social Areas of Otsego County, New York*, Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Bul. 422, (July, 1923); with C. R. Wasson, *Relation of Community Areas to Town Government in the State of New York*, Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Bul. 555, (April, 1933); *Social and Economic Areas of Broome County, New York, 1928*, Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Bul.

Because he decided to make his own major contribution in the field of structural analysis he very early decided to secure for his staff at Cornell others who would be specialists in functional analysis. He believed that functional analysis could best be done by social psychologists and he thought of social psychology as a separate social science which required specialized training. He had very early said, "I emphasize this confusion between sociology and social psychology because the lack of specialization has resulted in giving us mere-

ly a lot of interesting and more or less valuable generalizations concerning group behavior, but few general principles based upon exact observations and capable of scientific verification. . . . In considering the objectives of research in sociology, I would therefore distinguish sharply between sociology as the science of the forms of human association, their structure, and origin, and social psychology as the science of human behavior."¹³ It was, however, his conviction that only by specialization that exact analysis could be accomplished which led him to separate sociology and social psychology. In his final book, however, he said, "Social psychology is . . . the partner of sociology in the study of group life. . . ."¹⁴ He therefore stimulated research in social psychology and made great use of it in his general analysis of rural life.¹⁵

Proof that he was interested in other than the locality aspects of group behavior and interested in other than structural aspects of groups is to be found in the other five (than locality-group studies) of his own thirteen research bulletins and is still more ample in the writings

559, (Ithaca, N. Y., May, 1933); with W. G. Mather, Jr. and T. H. Townsend, *A Study of Rural Community Development in Waterville, New York*, Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Bul. 608, (Ithaca, N. Y., June, 1934); *Rural Social and Economic Areas in Central New York*, Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Bul. 614, (Ithaca, N. Y., June, 1934); *Ecological Units of Rural Organization, The Human Ecology of a County*, Social Science Research Council Bul. 12, (New York, March, 1933), pp. 15-36; *Locating the Rural Community*, Cornell Ext. Bul. 413, (Ithaca, N. Y., June, 1939); *School Centralization and the Rural Community*, Cornell Ext. Bul. 445, (Ithaca, N. Y., September, 1940); with Harold F. Dorn, *The Rural Neighborhoods of Otsego County, New York, 1921*, Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Mimeo. Bul. 2, (Ithaca, N. Y., March, 1934); with S. Earl Grigsby, *The Social Characteristics of Erin—A Rural Town in Southern New York*, Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Sta. Mimeo. Bul. 10, (Ithaca, N. Y., August, 1943). Glenn Almer Bakkum, *A Social Study of a Rural Area in Tompkins County*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell University, (Ithaca, New York, Sept., 1928); Raymond E. Wakeley, *The Social Areas of Schuyler County, New York*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y., 1928); Irwin T. Sanders, *The Sociology of a Bulgarian Shopski Village*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y., 1938); Douglas Enslinger, *Diagnosing Rural Community Organization*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y., June, 1939).

¹³ "Scientific Research in Rural Sociology," *The American Journal of Sociology*, XXXIII (September, 1927), 182-3.

¹⁴ *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization* (John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1942), p. 16.

¹⁵ See "Studies in Rural Leadership," with Robert W. Nafe and Sanderson, *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, XXIII (1929), 163-75; also the following chapters in *Rural Sociology*, *op. cit.*; 25, "Class and Caste in Rural Society"; 26, "Social Interaction in Rural Society"; and 27, "Social Change and Social Trends in Rural Society."

of persons who worked under his guidance.¹⁶ Furthermore, all of the

locality-group studies dealt with the functional as well as the structural aspects of these groups.

¹⁶ See especially Sanderson's *A Survey of Sickness in Rural Areas in Cortland County, New York*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 112 (Ithaca, N. Y., March, 1929); with Chester R. Wasson, *Relation of Community Areas to Town Government in the State of New York*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bul. 555 (Ithaca, N. Y., April, 1933); *Relation of Size of Community to Marital Status*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 200 (Ithaca, N. Y., February, 1937); with W. A. Anderson, *Membership Relations in Cooperative Organizations*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Mimeo. Bul. 9 (Ithaca, N. Y., April, 1943); *Research Memorandum on Rural Life in the Depression*, Social Science Research Council Bul. 34, (New York, 1937); "The Relations of the Farmer to Rural and Urban Groups," *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, XXII (1928), 100-110; with Robert W. Nafe, "Studies in Rural Leadership," *Publications of the American Sociological Society*, XXIII (1929), 163-175; "Changes in the Farm Family," *Religious Education*, XIX (February, 1924), 22-31; "Science and the Changing Modern Family," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXII (October, 1930), 810-818; and "Trends in Family Life Today," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIV (April, 1932), 311-321. Harold C. Hoffsommer, *The Relation of Cities and Larger Villages to Changes in Rural Trade and Social Areas in Wayne County, New York*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ. (Ithaca, New York, June, 1929); Hashem Amir Ali, *Social Change in the Hyderabad State in India as Affected by the Influence of Western Culture*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ. (Ithaca, N. Y., Sept., 1929); Mrs. Alice Belle Salter, *Membership in Certain Youth Organizations as Affecting the Behavior of High School Students*, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y., Jan., 1939); Amy Agnes Gessner, *Selective Factors in Migration in a Rural New York State Community*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y., Sept., 1939); Duane L. Gibson, *Membership Relations of Farmers Milk Marketing Organizations in New York State*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y., Sept., 1940); J. Edwin Losey, *Membership Relations of a Cooperative Purchasing Association*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y.,

The only other social group to which Sanderson gave any considerable part of his research time and talent, and to which he gave detailed attention in his teaching, was the rural family. A whole article in this issue is dedicated to his contribution in that field, but I want to show here how thoroughly and systematically scientific his work was in that field. He and Foster, in 1929, set forth "An Outline of the Sociology of the Family" and suggested what they thought would be significant research in this field.¹⁷ In 1930 they presented an outline for family case studies which they prefaced with the statements, "... we have taken the position . . . that sociology is a study of the forms of human association and factors influencing the evolution, development, structure and functioning of these various forms"; and "In outlining the sociology of the monogamic family from the above viewpoint we suggest types of families based on (1) structural elements, such as size, sex and age; (2) legal types; and (3) types based on internal relationships, such as sub-groups, relations of dominance or concensus, and common and divergent activities." The outline, or out-

Sept., 1940); and William M. Smith, Jr., *Participation of Rural Young Married Couples in Group Activities*, Thesis for Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Cornell Univ., (Ithaca, N. Y., Sept., 1942).

¹⁷ *The Sociology of the Family*, by Sanderson and R. G. Foster, Cornell Univ. Agri. Exp. Sta., New York, Mimeo. Bul. 1, (December 1, 1929).

lines, presented were prescriptions for observing, classifying and analyzing one family after another in a systematic and, they believed, a scientific way.¹⁸ Sanderson later set forth his conviction about the necessity of doing research in the family by such a method. He said, "If sociological science is capable of making any significant contribution to our knowledge of family life, it must first establish definite categories of description, it must then devise and test means for obtaining data accurately, and finally it must find means of establishing the frequency with which given phenomena occur with relation to certain conditions before its generalizations can be usefully applied."¹⁹

This is as good a place as any to comment on why Sanderson did not follow along with the statistics cult which was so prevalent, especially in the early days, of his sociological career. He knew that it was imperative in social analysis to "establish the frequency with which different phenomena occur with relation to certain conditions," but apparently did not believe, as is often asserted, that "in the social science statistics is the analogue of science." Nor did he believe that statistics, or any other method of quantification was itself either the first or last step in scientific analysis. It could not help to identify significant group phenomena and could not completely describe

their composition, inter-relationships, or structure. It might help on some of these but is inadequate for complete group description which is the *sine quo non* of scientific analysis. He encouraged some statistical research but only when it served the ends of more accurate and complete description than could otherwise be accomplished.

The fact that he named the department which he headed at Cornell, "Rural Organization," probably lent further credence to those who believed Sanderson was interested only in social structure. This was not true even though in a semi-popular article he once described "rural organization as the science of rural life."²⁰ His department did extension as well as research work and he believed that sociology's greatest contribution to social action and welfare is its knowledge of social organization. He entitled his basic textbook, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*, and stated his purpose to be a consideration of "the objectives and methods of rural sociology as a science, and its relation to social organization as a means of advancing the welfare of rural people."²¹ I think this may be taken as his reason for giving his department the same title as he did his textbook. He believed and promoted science but believed that rural sociology should be more than scientific research. He believed

¹⁸ "A Sociological Case Study of Farm Families," by Sanderson and R. G. Foster, *The Family*, XI (June, 1930), 107-14.

¹⁹ "Sociological Analysis of the Family," *Social Forces*, XII (December, 1933), 230-236.

²⁰ "The Science of Country Life," *The Cornell Countryman*, XIX (November, 1921), 39.

²¹ *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*, op. cit., p. 9.

that effective rural organization required the contributions of other sciences than rural sociology and that welfare depended on more than sociology and all other sciences combined. I submit that this too is characteristic of a great scientist, none of whom attempts to make a complete religion or philosophy of science, much less of his own specialized science. Sanderson personally wrote the sentence, "The primary aim of rural sociology is the improvement of the conditions of the people on the land," which appears in a joint report on social research.²² He asserted in one of the last things he wrote, "Fundamental research is sterile, its value unproven, without its application."²³

He was always interested in human welfare and even though incurably scientific in theories, methods and practices of research, lent himself and attempted to translate his scientific knowledge, even his scientific techniques into instruments of social action. His writings in the fields of action are almost as ample as in the field of science. Not only were the results of research bulletins presented in useful extension pamphlets and papers presented before action groups, but he made his methods of analysis available to those who wanted to make practical use of his knowledge of group organizations and

group behavior. His first published book in sociology, *The Farmer and His Community*, was for practical use²⁴ and his *Leadership for Rural Life*, was literally a manual for rural organization leaders.²⁵ His and Polson's (R.A.), *Rural Community Organization*, had large sections which serve this same purpose,²⁶ and one of his earliest articles was on "An Extension Program in Rural Social Organization."²⁷ A few years later he spoke to the same organization on "Present Opportunities of Land Grant Institutions in the Field of Rural Welfare."²⁸ He was the first Secretary and later President of the American Country Life Association. He wrote at times for the *Survey* on rural social work and on social organizations.²⁹ Probably the thing in which he had right to the greatest satisfaction was the use made of his studies of rural locality groups by the Regents Inquiry in New York State in 1935-36. He and his colleagues had made many studies on the location and size of natural rural areas, some studies of rural villages and he had written a Rural School Leaflet as early as 1922 entitled, "Map Your School District." He did all of these things because he was convinced that

²⁴ *The Farmer and His Community*, (Harcourt Brace and Co., New York, 1922).

²⁵ *Leadership for Rural Life*, (Associated Press, New York, 1940).

²⁶ (John Wiley and Sons, 1939).

²⁷ Proceedings of the Thirty-Fifth Annual Convention of the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations at New Orleans, 1921.

²⁸ *Ibid.*, 48th Convention, 1934.

²⁹ See *Survey*, XXXXII (May 17, 1919), 282-293; and XXXVI (May 21, 1921), 240-241.

²² *The Field of Research in Rural Sociology*, by Sanderson, Carl C. Taylor and C. E. Lively, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., (October, 1938).

²³ "Sociology as a Means to Democracy," *American Sociological Review*, VIII (February, 1943), 8.

"research without action is sterile."

In later years Sanderson became interested in the application of science to larger areas of social behavior, to regions and to regional and even national planning. He recognized a region as quite a different group than those upon which he had done most of his research, in fact was not sure that a region is a group. He thoroughly understood the ecologists' and even the anthropologists' concepts of a region but found neither of them adequate. He commented that, "Sociology may probably use both these concepts, as well as those of other social sciences. But if the region or district is to be a sociological concept, it must be more than these and it must have the characteristics of a sociological group."³⁰ When proven to be such and clearly defined he would believe it could and expect it to be scientifically analyzed.

His comments on planning are equally interesting and consistent. In Rural Sociology he said, "There is fundamental need to change our attitudes toward social change from one of desire for absolutes to a willingness to regard life as an adventure and to try social inventions with the experimental attitude of science."³¹ In another place he had said, "Science grows by discovery, invention, and generalization, which is subject to the test of experiment and the criticism of opposing theories. Out of this comes an accepted body of knowledge. In the planning process we need the

same procedure. First, research to get the facts; then discussion of the conclusions by competent authorities; then executive action."³²

I believe I can conclude this memorial article to Dwight Sanderson—Social Scientist—by selecting statements of his which appeared at widely varying times and places but which are so consistent one with the other as to validly reflect the consistency and scientific integrity of his work and life. Let me try and let the reader be the judge.

"Until we can come to some agreement as to the nature of the fundamental phenomena with which we are dealing, there is little probability of any rapid advance in the science of sociology."³³

"Sociology is the study of human association and factors influencing the evolution, development, structure, and functioning of the various forms."³⁴

"The objective of any science is a description of its phenomena. . . . Until we take the trouble to describe different kinds of groups . . . we shall fail to have any adequate understanding of the nature of groups."³⁵

"As in other sciences, the purpose of description and classification is not mere taxonomy, but to bring out differences of structure associated with differences of behavior which will enable us to better understand

³⁰ "Questions for Sociology," *Social Forces*, XIII (December, 1934), 177-179.

³¹ "Sociology as a Means to Democracy," *op. cit.*, p. 7.

³² "A Sociological Case Study of Farm Families," *op. cit.*

³³ "Group Description," *op. cit.*

³⁰ *Rural Sociology*, *op. cit.*, pp. 299-300.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 641.

the behavior and to be able to predict what it will be under given conditions."³⁶

"As I see it the object of social research in rural life is to discover systematically the structure and processes of existing rural society and the principles of social organization, as a means whereby farm people may be able to readjust their institutions and to gain an intelligent control over their social environment."³⁷

"There is fundamental need to change our attitudes toward social change from one of desire for absolutes to a willingness to regard life as an adventure and to try social inventions with the experimental attitude of science."³⁸

³⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 319.

³⁷ *Proceedings of Fortieth Annual Convention of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges at Washington, D. C., (November, 1926), p. 170.*

³⁸ *Rural Sociology, op. cit.*, p. 641.

Group Classification: Dwight Sanderson's Contribution*

By Howard W. Beers† and John H. Kolb††

I.

From the beginning of his career in sociology, Dwight Sanderson was committed to the conception of this discipline as a science of the forms of human association, thus taking his stand with the formalists.¹ As the so-called "formal" school came under attack, Sanderson admitted that sociology might indeed deal with phenomena other than forms of association, but "whatever else it may include," he wrote, "sociology deals primarily with the phenomena of

groups or the forms of association."² Earlier, he had written:

What are the phenomena which are the peculiar objects of attention of sociology, for rural sociology is simply the sociology of rural life. In general, they are the forms of human association, the various sorts of human groups. If we are to have a scientific knowledge of these groups, we must first be able to identify them, which will involve a knowledge of those characteristics of structure which make possible their identification. Then if we seek to know how these groups may be controlled, we must know how they act, how they behave. The first is the anatomy and taxonomy, or systematic classifica-

* Kolb, the junior author, wishes it made clear that in the preparation of this paper, his was the consultative, corrective "role" rather than the creative, constructive one. The authors acknowledge also the helpful criticism of C. Arnold Anderson and Harold F. Kaufman.

† University of Kentucky.

†† University of Wisconsin.

¹ See P. A. Sorokin, *Contemporary Sociological Theories* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1928). Ch. IX.

² Dwight Sanderson, "Group Description," *Social Forces*, XVI (March, 1938). 309-319.

tion, of society; the latter involves its physiology.³

Sanderson's ideas about the social group were expressed in fewer publications and they have stimulated less response from sociologists than his views about the community and the family. In a bibliography of his sociological writings, only two of 94 titles refer specifically and solely to the social group.⁴ In all of his work, however, the concept of the social group was implicit and fundamental. Probably no other sociologist has taken any single form of human grouping through such a sequence of research drubbings as did Sanderson in the studies of the rural community.⁵ To be sure, some of the Cornell community studies were less ably conceived and executed than others, but they all expressed the idea that the rural community is a group, and that it requires scientific analysis.

Sanderson considered his two special articles on the group to be preliminary and tentative. Of the *outline for group description*, he wrote, ". . . (it) is offered . . . with the hope that others will show its errors and weaknesses and improve it."⁶ Of the *classification* based on structure, he said, "it is offered merely to promote discussion and to incite others to make similar attempts."⁷ He wrote

somewhat apologetically even in his last book—"These group descriptions will be incomplete and inadequate because of the limitations of our present knowledge concerning them. . . ."

His work on the community has been taken up and is being advanced. A host of workers are moving ahead in the sociology of the family, but there has been no rush of students toward the group-classification idea. Probably the latter challenge to sociologists has not been accepted readily because there is great pressure on most social scientists to help in the immediate amelioration of conditions, and the criterion of success applied by laymen is facility in dealing with social problems, rather than persistence in the objective collection of minutiae to build a scientific classification. Science-building is, for the sociologist, as for workers in other disciplines, often relegated to "after office hours." This may account for the fact, that, for all his commitment to the theory of the social group, even Sanderson had to be content with publication of only the two papers that have been cited. By these articles, however, he moved boldly into the task of group description and classification.

Dwight Sanderson, "Group Description," *op. cit.*

"A Preliminary Group Classification Based on Structure," *Social Forces*, XVII, (December, 1938), 196-201.

³ For a list, see W. A. Anderson, *op. cit.*

⁴ Dwight Sanderson, "Group Description," *op. cit.*, p. 312.

⁵ "A Preliminary Group Classification. . . ." *op. cit.*, p. 197.

³ Dwight Sanderson, "Scientific Research in Rural Sociology," *The American Journal of Sociology*, XXXIII (September, 1927), 181.

⁴ W. A. Anderson, *Bibliography of the Department of Rural Sociology, Cornell University*. Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Mimeo. Bul. 15, (Ithaca, September, 1944), 24 pp.

II.

Robert E. Park once said that he feared Sanderson's humanitarian drive was biasing his work as a scientist. Doubtless Park was deliberately testing a new students' capacity for polemics, but his suggestion was important. Sanderson, of all his contemporaries, had the most thorough and systematic preparatory experience in natural science. On the other hand, he was strongly moved to human kindness. In his earliest years as a sociologist—and previously as a recognized entomologist—he disciplined himself and his students rigorously to objectivity. He had no patience with careless thinking and inaccurate description, and he wrote, "Until we take the trouble to describe different kinds of groups with the same care that a biologist uses to describe a species, genus or family of plant or animal life, we shall fail to have any adequate understanding of the nature of the group. How far would zoology advance if students merely talked about sparrows, bugs, or squirrels, with no exact description?"⁹

In his later years, although still the objectivist in research, it seemed to his students and associates that he gave more attention to projects of humanitarian focus, such as community organization, rural church and school problems, and rural health and welfare. Undoubtedly the fact that these were also the years of the Great Depression and its aftermath

had much to do with the mellowing of his sociological habits.

It has been stated even recently by entomologists that Sanderson would have become one of the half-dozen top-ranking men in their field had he remained in it. That he should leave entomology for sociology after passing through transitional periods of administration and graduate study is occasion for some wonder. It is certain that he did not "wash out," rather he was conspicuously successful in that field. Here it is important to recall that he was an *economic* entomologist. This specialization indicates that his pre-sociological orientation was a mixture of natural-science objectivity and of concern for human welfare. Economic entomologists are at the job of insect control; their sustained attention to scientific classification is means, not end.

Sanderson the entomologist was skilled in the use of keys. Thinking in terms of genera, families, species and varieties was automatic to him. Now the man who classifies insects has a task not much less staggering than the man who would classify social groups. The number of species already described is so great that to find one by searching a key is a major task, and large numbers of additional species are suspected to exist. Furthermore, entomologists have yet to reach enough agreement to standardize their classificatory systems. Individual entomologists now, although less than in Sanderson's day, have

⁹ Dwight Sanderson, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1942), pp. 806.

¹⁰ Dwight Sanderson, "Group Description," *op. cit.*, p. 311.

wide license in the formulation of their keys. Their field—by the testimony of workers in it—is less advanced than any other biological discipline in the perfection of its taxonomy, although deliberate classification has been underway for nearly 200 years.

III.

One problem confronting the social taxonomist is that a group can have no more separate existence within the larger society than a concentration of mycelia can have within a mass of fungus. In examining mold through a microscope, one sees a tangle of threads (hyphae), interconnecting on many planes and at many points. By adjusting the microscopic level delicately upward or downward, one brings into focus the threads at shallower or deeper planes. At no moment is the whole mycelial structure under view. By change of focus, specific portions are abstracted. Observation of groups, with numberless inter-personal connection (hyphae) requires analogous abstraction.

The orthodox methodology of induction involves formulating a definition, determining categories, then describing and classifying groups by those categories. There are many definitions, and they differ especially in their inclusiveness, of the "forms of human association."¹⁰ Some are so broad that they comprehend all social interaction; others are more restricted. At this stage in the history of sociology, it appears that any definition is tentative. Sanderson found

none that he deemed adequate, but chose Eubank's formulation as a working hypothesis, assuming it also to be compatible with Znaniecki's theory.¹¹ He observed that the concept now serves in sociology with the same generality that the concept "animal" serves in zoology—which comprehends everything "from protozoa to elephants."

In the first of his two articles, "Group Description," Sanderson stated the concern of sociology with forms of association, indicated the inadequacy of the definition of groups, argued for "scientific description of groups," reported the work of his seminars on groups, presented a five-fold set of categories for description of group structure, presented the Boy Scout troop as an illustrative case, and closed by asserting that there was also need for categories to use in describing group behavior.

Outline for the Description of Groups (Abridged)

I. Identity

1. Group limits (exclusive, restricted, inclusive),
2. Entrance and exit (voluntary, involuntary,

¹⁰ See Earle E. Eubank. *The Concepts of Sociology*. "A group may be regarded as entity, of two or more persons, in active or suspended interaction." p. 163. Quoted in Dwight Sanderson, "Group Description," *op. cit.*

Sanderson's last published definition of the group is: "A group consists of two or more people between whom there is an established pattern of psychological interaction; and it is recognized as an entity, by its own members and usually by others because of its particular type of collective behavior." *Rural Sociology* . . . *op. cit.*, p. 13.

¹¹ Dwight Sanderson, "Group Description," *op. cit.*

by election), 3. Identification of members (name, garb, insignia).

II. Composition

1. Size (number and kind of elements), 2. Homogeneity, 3. Stratification, 4. Permanent or shifting membership.

III. Inter-group Relationships

1. Independent, 2. Federated, 3. Chartered, 4. Degree of dominance.

IV. Intra-group Relationships

1. Forms of interaction between members (personal or impersonal, representative, fiduciary; contacts, frequency and character of; participation, forms and degree of, quality or type of; solidarity; group control of behavior of members; folkways and mores; language; place and role of certain individuals).

2. Spatial Relationships (area, density, place of meeting).

3. Temporal Relationships (temporary, continuous, seasonal, history).

V. Structure and Mechanism

1. Leader, 2. Sub-groups, 3. Aim, 4. Code of behavior, 5. Means of consensus, 6. Means of developing morale, 7. Institutionalization, 8. Mechanisms for maintenance or preservation, 9. Physical basis or essential physical equipment.

In the second article, "A Preliminary Group Classification Based on Structure," Sanderson offered a three-category scheme of classification, in the form of a key.¹²

¹² Dwight Sanderson, "A Preliminary Group Classification . . .," *op. cit.*

Preliminary Structural Classification (Abridged)

I. Involuntary

A. Blood relation, kinship. B. Locality, C. Incidental contiguity (1. Temporary, 2. Continuous), D. Cultural, Non-territorial, E. Citizenship.

II. Voluntary

A. Unorganized (1. Personal, 2. Impersonal)

B. Organized

1. Leader dominant

a. Informal

b. Formal

ba. Leader an adult outside of group.

bb. Leader a director of coordinate participating group.

bc. Leader employed as director (bca. church, bcb. project-organizing group, bcc. character building and cultural).

bd. Leader in control of group behavior but subject to higher authority. (bda. Leader elected by group, bdb. Leader appointed).

2. Leader not dominant

A. Exclusive (a. Honoric, b. Fraternal, c. Patriotic, d. Social, e. other special interest).

B. Restricted (a. to those agreeing to conform, b. to part owners of group property).

C. Inclusive (a. position of officers nominal, b. act through officers).

III. Delegate

A. (Federations, B. Legislative Conventions, C. Temporary Congresses).

Paradoxically, in the determination of categories by induction, description begins before one is ready with any nomenclature by which to record it. The language evolves during the search for it. The classifications Sanderson presented were the outgrowths of many student-prepared descriptions of groups, submitted in seminars. A comparison of the notes kept by one of the authors of this paper, who was a member of the seminar in 1933, with Sanderson's articles published in 1938, shows that many changes were made in the outlines during this five-year period. Additional changes in the description outline will be ventured below in this paper, although they must be considered only partial and tentative.

IV.

An old problem in scientific classification is the dilemma of dichotomy versus continuum. This is particularly acute in sociological description, because the attributes of groups do not exist in either—or alternatives. Hence, a special need for tools of measurement. Contemporary sociological literature includes many reports of efforts to measure such attributes as class position, sociation, participation, attraction, social intelligence, social insight, social adjustment, and socio-economic status. The names of many of these attributes appear in Sanderson's outlines, and their ulti-

mate acceptance or rejection for purposes of classification may rest upon their measurability.

Another problem is that of deciding upon the elemental attribute of grouphood. Is it size? Several sociologists have concluded that the dyad is the elemental group.¹³ This is a decision in terms of number of persons. But what about the possibility of a decision in terms of number of bonds, or types of relationships among the members regardless of the number of members?¹⁴ Lundberg's sociometric suggestion for an "atomic" system of classification is not to be put aside lightly as over-simplification. Postulating an "atomic" group of two persons attracted, repulsed or indifferent to each other, he (with Dodd) proposed that each cell in a combination-permutation matrix be a category for use in the classification of groups.¹⁵

A name for the behavior of a person as a member of a group is "role," and every person has more than one role.¹⁶ One man acts the role of teacher in the classroom, brother in the lodge, father in one family group, son in another, husband in the marriage pair, and so on. Nor are these roles simple or unitary. The role of teacher may comprehend various component sub-roles, such as father surrogate, intimate friend, counsellor,

¹³ Howard Becker and Ruth Hill Useem, "Sociological Analysis of the Dyad," *American Sociological Review*, VII (February, 1942), 13-26.

¹⁴ P. A. Sorokin, C. C. Zimmerman, C. J. Galpin. *A Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology* (Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1930), I, Ch. VI, p. 305 ff.

disciplinarian—each sub-role usually, perhaps always revealing the existence of a sub-group. A member, then is a person who has a role in the group—who participates segmentally in the behavior of the group. Role is thus a sociological equivalent of one division in a "division of labor". A role is one's "occupation" within the group.¹⁷

Is not role then, a component of structure? A unique aspect of any structure is the specific set of relationships that give it form, and the specificity of relationships is revealed in the roles of members.¹⁸ Only a segment or segments of a person are involved in any group; no group commands the totality of a person. This segment is a role, unitary or plural. Some roles will be common to all members of any group, other roles will be acted only by some of the members. Some roles will be acted regularly, others sporadically or intermittently. The important thing is that a role is an item of group structure.

The elemental group, thus, might be that in which there is but one unitary type of role acted by each

member. Such a group might have only two members, or it might have a larger number. The intriguing thing about this idea is that it permits classification in terms of the sociological essence of a group, rather than in terms of a demographic correlative (the population of the group) or a genetic correlative (manner in which membership originates.) The old difficulties are replaced by new ones, however. What are the names of the various unitary roles? What are the possible general types of unitary roles? What combinations of unitary roles are found in recurrent complex roles? Certain procedures of description used in job analysis may prove suitable for emulation in role analysis.

The foregoing discussion may now be supplemented by specific proposals for modification of Sanderson's outline for group description, in accord with the letter and the spirit of his invitation.

In the outline Sanderson proposed five primary categories: (1) identity, (2) composition, (3) inter- and (4) intra-group relationships, and (5) structure and mechanism, with a partial elaboration of secondary and tertiary categories. To what extent did he meet the canons of classification: reference to one principle, mutual exclusion and total coverage? Clearly, the five categories all refer to characters of the group, and thus satisfy the first requirement.

By identity, Sanderson meant to include the characteristics that "delimit a group", give it "a sort of

¹⁷ George A. Lundberg, "Some Problems of Group Classification and Measurement," *American Sociological Review*, V (June, 1940), 351-360.

¹⁸ This line of reasoning has been developed in the writings of George H. Mead and his colleagues and students. Cf. Leonard S. Cottrell, "The Analysis of Situational Fields in Social Psychology," *American Sociological Review*, VII, p. 370-382.

¹⁹ Cf. Ralph Linton, *The Science of Man* (D. Appleton-Century, 1936), Ch. VIII.

²⁰ The meaning of relationship in this context is that of "interact" as Cottrell defined it. See Leonard Cottrell, *op. cit.*, p. 374.

boundary," or set "it off from those who do not belong." There is a slight error of connotation in the use of "identity," (which implies sameness) rather than "characteristics permitting identification," or some such word as discreteness, but more important is the failure of this concept to be exclusive of its four co-ordinates in the proposed classification. Are not composition, inter-group relationships, intra-group relations, structure and mechanism all used in the identification of a group? However, the sub-categories suggest an appropriate replacement for identity. The first two, "group limits" and "entrance and exit" both refer to the origination and termination of membership. Incidentally, neither of these is an aspect of structure, but a specification of how the structure comes into and goes out of being, and is replenished or depleted. The third category, "identification of members," may be rephrased, "symbols of membership," and withdrawn to that later portion of the classification in which Sanderson referred to mechanism. Hence the category, "inclusiveness" referring to origination and termination of membership may be proposed to replace "identity."¹⁹ This is clearly exclusive of the other co-ordinate headings, and comprehends two of the three secondary categories proposed by Sanderson.

¹⁹ A well developed classification of types of admission and dismissal is presented by P. Sargent Florence, Ch. XIX, "The Framework and Data of Statistical Politics," *The Statistical Method in Economics and Political Science*. (New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1929).

Of these two secondary categories, the first, "group limits", Sanderson characterized as exclusive, restricted or inclusive. It is difficult, however, to see that there is any important difference between "restricted" and "exclusive". In any event the possible types of exclusiveness or inclusiveness are adequately denoted by the specifications of eligibility used to describe entrance and exit. This reduces the problem of tertiary sub-classification to that of designating the categories of origination and termination of membership. Membership may or may not be consequent upon birth; if not, it may originate with an application from a prospective member, or by the group's invitation to a prospective member, or it may be granted by a group in consideration of qualities or actions of the person, or a person may be drafted or compelled to join, or there may be some mixture of these classes of entrance. Under each of these tertiary categories there may be need for other subordinate series setting out the types of eligibility. Such a set of concepts appears to have advantages over the categories voluntary, involuntary, and by election. The corresponding secondary category, "exit", comprises such varieties of termination as death, resignation, lapse of participation, completion of term, dismissal, and mixtures of these types.

Upon first examination, the next primary category, "composition", appears to be both relevant to the basis of the classification and exclusive of its coordinates. It refers to the num-

ber and character of the persons who are members, i.e., participate segmentally, or act roles in the group. It refers even to certain personal characteristics that relate to the group only indirectly. The secondary category, size, is specific, and should not be complicated by the question of "elements" as posed by Sanderson. The "delegate" or "representative" type of membership is described more appropriately under structure, a later heading. The next secondary category, homogeneity, by its reference to age, sex and other attributes overlaps an earlier one—group limits. Actually, this category means identity or lack of identity in total personality among the members. Since this cannot be known except in terms of the specific attributes of members, however, and since age, sex, and other attributes are comprehended earlier under eligibility, "homogeneity" is not needed as a sub-category under composition. The third sub-category, stratification, pertains to intra-group relations, which is another main heading, and thus cannot properly be subsumed under composition. The fourth sub-category, permanency of membership, is relevant, but is covered by the foregoing descriptions of entrance and exit. In revision, therefore, the second primary category in the classification may be replaced by "size", and the problem of sub-classification is then merely one of deciding upon classes of size.

The third primary category (inter-group relationships) seems also to be relevant and exclusive, but it might

be more precisely stated as "position", i.e., the social position of the group within the larger society. (Some students may wish to consider describing two types of position; rank and functional). The one type of relationship used by Sanderson under this heading is autonomy, and his four sub-categories could be adjusted to make three: independent, semi-dependent, dependent. But other sub-categories are needed here: position in space, (area, density, meeting place); position in time (age, duration, continuous or discontinuous); rank, or social class position instead of what Sanderson named social isolation (distance between members and non-members); reputation; demographic position (proportion of population having membership, e.g., majority-minority; frequency—e.g., numerous, rare). An important component of social position, also, is role; the role of the group as a unit in the larger society. Cultural milieu is added as another item.

The fourth primary category, intra-group relationships, is the most sociologically relevant of all the five that Sanderson proposed. It is this category under which the essence of the group as a social structure is comprehended. For this reason it is here suggested that the phrase, intra-group relationships, be replaced in the outline by the word "structure." It will be noted that Sanderson's inclusion of structure in his fifth primary category, "structure and mechanism," relates to both structure of the group and structure

used by the group (tools, machinery).

By adjustment under the newly proposed category, social position, two of the sub-classes used here by Sanderson, (spatial relationships and temporal relationships) have been transferred, leaving only "forms of interaction among members," which is really a synonym for "structure of the group." Hence, the problem of sub-classification becomes one of determining the appropriate types of relationships, or bonds among members, or, in other terms, their roles. However, the meaning of structure needs clarification. In his second outline—that for structural classification, Sanderson gives primary importance to the manner in which membership comes about. But if one includes the *way a group is formed*, is it any less appropriate to include the *way a group functions*, as a criterion of structure? Actually, Sanderson included categories of group formation, true structure (forms of association), social objects (symbols), and activities (processes, functions) in his structural outline. A decision must be made as to whether or not the concept of structure is as embracing as this, and the problem seems to involve more than a word trick.

The fifth primary category for use in group description Sanderson called "structure and mechanism". This is a compound category, and a modification here proposed is that sub-categories in the fourth and fifth major divisions be re-distributed so that the structural parts and objects are sub-

sumed under the rubric, "structure," which then becomes the fourth primary category. Thus we have reached the crux of the problem of group classification.

Sanderson considered his first outline as an attempt to provide for description of group structure, although he asserted the need also for description of group behavior.²⁰ The five main headings were considered to be mutually exclusive characters or approaches to a description of groups. The second outline was a concrete framework for classification by structure.²¹ For such a classification, the main headings should (and do) represent different degrees or qualities of the same characteristic. As indicated above, however, many of the categories in the first outline do not pertain specifically to social structure, some of them describe behavior. Moreover, the relation of the original outline for group description in terms of structure to that for structural classification is somewhat irregular. Throughout the whole *structure* outline, sub-categories are found in positions quite different from those they held in the *description* outline. The primary categories of the "classifica-

²⁰ "Apart from some specific social structure that is taken as the standpoint, the use of distinctions such as transactions and procedure is not merely meaningless but confusing. Hence, the importance of a consistent preliminary structural analysis." Florence, *op. cit.*, p. 360.

²¹ One error of notation may be observed in the *structure* outline, where capital-letter designations appear under II B, 2—"leader not dominant". Headings A, B, C, under 2 (and their subcategories) should each be designated with one further subordination than that specified.

tion" (involuntary, voluntary, delegate) are drawn from 23 secondary headings in the "description." This is permissible only by application of some rationale establishing a hierarchy of importance among characters. The rationale in plant and animal classification is phylogenetic priority. There is little if any evidence of a comparable principle in the Sanderson outlines. In revision, effort should be made to arrange parallel sequences of concepts in the two outlines, or in effect, to draw the *structure* outline integrally into the *description* outline. A reasonable objective now is to reconstruct the latter outline so that it comprehends both structure and behavior, and contains within itself the requisites of complete keys, whether structural, behavioral, or both. Hence, it is appropriate to assemble the behavior items (from Sanderson's original outline) under a sixth primary category, "action" (behavior). Sanderson himself proposed a first sub-category by referring to behavior within the group, and to the behavior of the group toward others. The first of these may here be called "intra-action" and the last, "intergroup-action."

Suggested Modification of Sanderson's Outline for Description of Groups

I. INCLUSIVENESS

A. Entrance

1. By birth
2. By application
 - a. Eligibility (specific, non-specific)

3. By invitation

- a. Eligibility (specific, non-specific)

4. By grant

5. By draft

6. Mixed types

B. Exit

1. By death

2. By resignation

3. By lapse of participation

4. By completion of term

5. By dismissal

6. Mixed types

II. SIZE

- A. *Number of members* (minimum, average, maximum)

III. POSITION

- A. *Role* (specialization within larger society)

- B. *Cultural Milieu*

- C. *Rank*

- D. *Reputation*

- E. *Autonomy*

- F. *Position in space* (area, density, meeting place)

- G. *Position in time* (age, duration, continuous-discontinuous)

- H. *Demographic position* (majority-minority; numerous-rare).

IV. STRUCTURE

- A. *Membership element* (individual, corporate)

- B. *Membership roles* (number, classification)

- C. *Organization*

1. Explicit, implicit, both

2. Hierarchical, functional, line

- a. Elaboration of sub-categories differentiating types of leadership systems needed here

3. Unitary or multiple (constituent groups)
4. Special organs

D. *Morale*

E. *Impersonal Social Objects*

1. Collective representations
 - a. History: recorded or heard
 - b. Purpose: declared or understood
 - c. Folkways: elaborate, simple, none
 - d. Ritual: elaborate, simple, none
 - e. Rules: documented, traditional
 - f. Distinctive language: elaborate, simple, none
2. Instruments
 - a. Insignia: elaborate, simple, none
 - b. Materiel: elaborate, simple, none
 - c. Media of exchange
 - d. Power agencies

V. ACTION

A. *Intragroup-action* (within the group)

1. Participation
 - a. Communicative (person to person) or non-communicative (person to object)
 - b. Active or passive
 - c. Intimate or casual
 - d. Whole or segmental
 - e. Competitive, conflictive, cooperative
 - f. Regulated or non-regulated
 - g. Frequent or infrequent (constant or occasional)
2. Organizing

3. Agenda (service to members)
4. Objectification (acts creating or developing the structural social objects itemized under IV-E above)

B. *Intergroup-action* (behavior of the group toward others)

1. Participation
 - a. Active or passive
 - b. Whole or segmental
 - c. Competitive, conflictive, cooperative
 - d. Regulated or non-regulated
 - e. Frequent or infrequent
2. Agenda (service to non-members)
3. Acts creating or developing position
 - A-H. (sub-categories as under III above)

The revised outline is an attempt to advance the task of group description by re-selecting and regrouping categories to comprise a more exhaustive system of more exclusive items, comprehending what Sanderson called *behavior* as well as what he called *structure*. At many points the suggested revision does not get into tertiary and lower subordination, which must, of course, be developed before the outline can be considered complete. The construction of suitable classificatory systems awaits the perfection of descriptive procedure, hence no specific revision of Sanderson's structural classification is attempted here. The task is important, however, and it deserves the attention of sociologists engaged in research.

Only a cautious and partial critique of Sanderson's treatment of the so-

cial group has been feasible in the time available for the preparation of this paper. More deliberate consideration of the outline modifications here suggested may reveal their inadequacy. They do, however, point out features of Sanderson's outlines that need reconsideration, and they show certain lines of adjustment by means of which suitable revision can be undertaken.

The recognition of merit which this article accords to Sanderson's work on the classification of social groups is a testimonial to the man and to the idea. A prominent implication is that sociologists at many places and for a long time in the future will take part in the development of a taxonomy of groups. Their continuing effort will be, in the current postwar idiom, a "living memorial" to Dwight Sanderson.

THE FAMILY

By Robert G. Foster†

Dr. Dwight Sanderson was a scientist and not a propagandist. In attempting to evaluate his contribution to the field of the family it is both necessary and illuminating to look at his entire career. Here was a man well trained in the biological sciences and one who had made an outstanding success in his chosen profession at the time he definitely moved into the field of Rural Sociology after having completed his work for the doctorate in this field at the University of Chicago. I say that Dr. Sanderson was a scientist and not a propagandist because his main approach to the study of the family was a scientific one with a fine feeling for what needed to be done in making sociological contributions to the family practical and useful, but at the same time under-

standing that no ultimate improvement could be made unless it were based upon a sound scientific foundation. In all of his sociological thinking he was concerned with the group and the social organization of society, utilizing whatever knowledge was available from the cultural and psychological fields, but not as has been the case of some sociologists, taking either of these as the basic approach for the development of a science of sociology.

Sanderson saw the field clearly. He recognized man as a biological organism operating within a cultural milieu and developing varying types of personality manifestations depending upon the interplay of the biological within the cultural. His emphasis along this line never faltered. He did not assume that sociology as a science should be concerned with anything

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under heaven which had to do with the nature of society. It was his dream that some day someone might evolve a body of sociological research which would form the basis for a better understanding of the family group and thereby make it possible for the social worker, the home economist, the extension worker and others to deal in a more effective and practical way with family needs and problems than he could ever do without such a science. It has been said that psychiatry is the application of a basic science which does not as yet exist, meaning that before psychiatry can attain its fullest peak of practical accomplishment it must be based upon a science of personality from an holistic point of view and such a science as yet does not seem to have been developed. It is probably fair to say that many of the practical fields such as social work, home economics, extension, rural sociology and others are attempting to deal with the family group, but do not have any basic sociological science of the family upon which to base its practice. This, it seems to me, was what Sanderson was driving at in his continuing efforts in the development of a sociology of a family first formulated in printed form and published as a Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station Mimeograph Bulletin No. 1, in December, 1929.¹ Let us quote briefly from the point of view

presented in this formulation of his general theory.

The goal of science, from the critical point of view, is the acquisition of knowledge for its own sake, and not for the practical use of mankind. This would seem to follow by necessity from a purely descriptive or existential nature of its facts, and also from its inability to explain them by assigning their causes.²

This point of view does not in any sense deny the practical results which accrue from the findings of the many sciences nor the indirect gains to science that have been derived from the fields of technology, but it must still be maintained 'that the impersonal attitude of science, and the limitations which the search for accurate knowledge lays upon science would still require a single-hearted devotion to knowledge for its own sake.'³

It is to this concept of science that sociology must measure up if it is to be a science and not a body of philosophical theory or a synthetic technology. 'Man's increasing success in his control over nature is due to a clear understanding of the different problems involved, to a distinction between ends and means, between applied science (technology) and fields of theoretic inquiry, and between scientific method and philosophic method. The work is done on the principle of differentiation and specialization in the field of theoretic inquiry and integration and coordination in the field of practical application. Nobody, for in-

¹ Dwight Sanderson and Robert G. Foster, *The Sociology of the Family*, Department of Rural Social Organization, Cornell AES B 1, (Ithaca, New York, Dec. 1, 1929), mimeographed, pp. 2-4.

² H. P. Weld, *Psychology as Science*, (New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1928), p. 17.

³ H. P. Weld, *Psychology as Science*, (New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1928), p. 18.

stance, confuses the problem of how to build a bridge with the very different issue whether or not the bridge is desirable.'

The problem of how to build a bridge is a problem of applied science. It involves the integration and the coordination of the knowledge obtained from a great many different fields of scientific inquiry, but nobody confuses a problem of bridge building with a problem of theoretical mechanics.

Within the fields of theoretic inquiry there is a sharp distinction between philosophic and scientific method. Nobody confuses the problem regarding the ultimate reality of matter with the problem regarding the relative tensile strength of steel and iron. The different natural sciences . . . are all based on a common method, the scientific method and . . . there is a far going specialization and division of labor.

There is in the social sciences no common agreement as to method and no distinction between scientific and philosophic inquiry. There is utter confusion between means and ends, between practical problems and problems of theoretic inquiry . . . There is little specialization within each field; and a lack of uniformity in method. The problem regarding the means is a problem of applied science. It involves the integration and coordination of the knowledge made available by a great many different . . . sciences . . . In the world of social phenomena, 'practical or technological' problems are confused with problems of theoretic inquiry. Within the fields of theoretic inquiry there is no sharp distinction between

the philosophic and the scientific method.⁴

Philosophy 'and social ethics' are still rampant in the so-called social sciences.⁵ Not that there is no place for philosophy and ethics, but to confuse them with the science is unpardonable. 'Economics has been dominated for a century by speculations about values and by mental gymnastics with the concepts of land, labor and capital which are comparable only to the scholastic antics with the true, the good and the beautiful. There is still in most social scientists an irresistible urge to become a social philosopher. This tendency . . . leads to trouble if the philosophic results are taken for science.'⁶ There is also in most social scientists a suppressed desire to become social reformers and saviors of their fellowmen. A deep-felt sympathy with suffering humanity, a chivalrous tendency to take the side of the 'under dog', and an impatient desire to improve conditions quickly apparently give them a 'will to believe' in remedies which resemble too much our patent medicines to inspire complete confidence . . . This tendency to philosophic interpretation and this will to believe in simple remedies spring . . . from an emotional appeal with which no scientific analysis can compete. . . . and whatever the beauty and value of these products of the human mind, they do not give . . . a type of knowledge on which an

⁴ Geo. Spykman, *The Social Theory of George Simmel*, (Univ. Chicago Press, 1925), Preface, pp. VII-IX.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. IX.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. IX.

applied science (or 'technology') can be built.⁷

The above quoted material included in the *Sociology of the Family*, and setting forth pretty much the general basis upon which Sanderson attempted to formulate a sociology of a family seems to be as sound today as it was when he attempted to stimulate thinking along more scientific lines in this field. Evidence of the chaos in studies of the family was as true when Sanderson undertook his work as it is today. This is shown by the fact that there are hundreds of little questionnaire studies made by research workers designed to find out some practical bit of information which can be used in a particular situation. However useful these types of studies may be, they are still in the same category for the most part as the detailed things which a contractor has to do in undertaking to build a highway but cannot in any sense be labeled science. Facts are not in and of themselves science. Facts scientifically obtained and so organized that they support or deny certain hypotheses about family structure, function and elements which affect these may become the basis of scientific generalizations. Not only did Sanderson see that we have these piddling studies which are not oriented within the framework of any scientific structure but even worse, most of them are never retested by others in different parts of the country nor with different classes of the population to give them the kind of

validity necessary to the building of an adequate science of sociology. Many of these single isolated questionnaire studies are being quoted endlessly in textbooks just as though the findings were valid and students or professional workers could safely use these findings as the basis for scientific generalization.

Sanderson as can be seen, did not believe in this kind of science nor this kind of use of research findings. He wanted studies related to a methodology of research which over a period of years would eventually build a science upon which practical education, medicine, home economics, etc., could safely rely. He again emphasizes this point when he says:

If the family is to be studied as a group, that is from the point of view of sociology as a science, it will be necessary to differentiate sharply between scientific research and technological investigations of the family. It would be a comparatively simple procedure to set down a large number of 'problems' of the modern family, and set up methods for investigating them with a view to their solution. To do this would ignore the more fundamental truth needed, if sound solutions are to be formulated. A person who is indisposed may easily indicate where the pain or other symptom is located and take aspirin to relieve it quickly. But suppose the patient is suffering from an abscess at the base of the brain. The continued use of aspirin will not keep the patient from a slow and painful death although it allays some of the aching. This analogy seems perti-

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. IX-X.

ment to the case at hand. Writers are profuse in their statement about the maladies affecting the modern family and with superficial suggestions for aspirinic remedies. If the family can be nursed along on sedatives awhile, until a more thorough diagnosis is made, the subsequent treatment may prove more beneficial and the patient better able to cope with new life experiences as a consequence. But the real need is for a diagnosis which will reveal the causes of disorganization by means of a more scientific technique of group analysis.⁸

The essence of his contribution to our thinking may be summed up in the questions raised in his original formulation of the Field of Sociology of the Family where he says:⁹

The problems that arise in studying any group such as the family are:

1. What structure is involved?
2. What are its functions?
3. How do changes in structure affect its functions?
4. When called upon to function differently what changes in structure occur or what elements of structure persist without function?

Here we have in specific form what was later discussed by him with more mature thinking at the round table of Rural Sociology section of the American Sociological Society, Chicago, June 26, 1933. This article

which appeared in the December issue of *Social Forces* entitled "Sociological Analysis of the Family" gives the last formulation of Sanderson's thinking and should here be quoted:¹⁰

My present conclusion is that a logical basis for the description of the family, or any other group for that matter, must recognize that the family is composed of individuals with established and characteristic forms of sociation, such as domestic interaction, dominance, tension, confidence, consensus, etc., but that these forms of behavior always involve physical things or physical acts which are essential to the functions of the group. The house or domicile is not simply a feature of the environment which conditions the behavior patterns of the family, but it is an essential part of these behavior patterns because the maintenance of the domicile is an essential function of the family group. As the effort to establish and maintain the family domicile decreases, the action patterns involving associative processes also decrease, for the objects of association are thereby decreased. If we accept the Binkleys' domestic theory it would seem obvious that there will be less opportunity for domestic interaction in a family living in a hotel apartment with all services furnished and with few objects of common attention and few common activities within the home, than in a household requiring domestic interaction for its maintenance. As long as we have bodies and live in a physical world, human association is

⁸ Dwight Sanderson and Robert G. Foster, *The Sociology of the Family*, Department of Rural Social Organization, Cornell AESB 1, (Ithaca, New York, Dec. 1, 1929), mimeographed, p. 5.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 8.

¹⁰ Dwight Sanderson, "Sociological Analysis of the Family," reprinted from *Social Forces*, XII (Dec., 1933), p. 235.

not on a purely psychological or spiritual plane, but involves an interplay of attitudes, an interaction, toward or about things which is essential to the maintenance of the particular form of association concerned . . .

If sociological science is capable of making any significant contribution to our knowledge of family life, it must first establish definite categories of description, it must then devise and test means for obtaining the data accurately, and finally it must find means of establishing the frequency with which given phenomena occur with relation to certain conditions before its generalizations can be usefully applied.

Sanderson's first contribution to the field of family was therefore an attempt to establish the framework within which scientific thinking should proceed. His second contribution was that of having graduate students under his direction undertake studies which would demonstrate the validity of this approach to scientific research. A brief summary of these investigations follows:¹¹

The Department of Rural Social Organization commenced research on the sociology of the Family in 1928 with a study of the literature and research on the subject made by Robert G. Foster, under a grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial Fund. This was issued as mimeograph Bulletin 1, The Sociology

of the Family, December 1, 1929. This was followed by a field study of 80 farm families made by Mr. Foster and reported in his doctoral dissertation, 'Types of Farm Families and Effects of 4-H Club Work on Family Relations', June, 1929. (For a summary, see Sanderson and Foster, 'A Sociological Case Study of Farm Families'—The Family, June 1930, pp. 107-114). Miss Lemo T. Dennis, as a research fellow of the National Council of Parent Education, then commenced a somewhat similar study of urban and rural families which formed her doctoral dissertation, 'A Descriptive Study of Family Relationships from the Viewpoint of Child Guidance and Parental Education', September 1931.

In 1929 Howard W. Beers made a field study of 232 families on 'The Money Income of Farm Boys in a Southern New York Dairy Region' (Bulletin 512, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, September 1930). This was followed by a similar study of about 1200 boys and girls throughout the state made by questionnaires circulated through teachers and 4-H club agents. The results were published in Bulletin 560, Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station, May 1933. Mr. Beers subsequently in 1935 completed the study entitled 'Measurements of Family Relationships in Farm Families of Central New York'. This investigation published also by the Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station as Memoir 183 attempted the use of various statistical technics in understanding relationships within the farm family.

¹¹ "Conference on Family Research," Cornell University, January 13, 1933, Report of Discussion, Department of Rural Social Organization, New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, p. 548.

Another contribution to method was that used by Sanderson in analysis of autobiographical studies made by students in classes on their own families. Miss Mildred B. Thurow, under a fellowship of the Social Science Research Council, completed in February, 1935, as Memoir 171 of the Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station "A Study of Selected Factors in Family Life as Described in Autobiographies." All of these studies done by the Department of Rural Social Organization under the direction of Dr. Sanderson were attempts on his part to build up substantiating materials to his general thesis that there must be evolved a scientific sociology of the family as a basis for all practical work and teaching in this field.

Sanderson made three other contributions to the field of the rural family which I am including at the end of this paper not because I think they are unimportant but because I feel that his major contribution was that just formulated in the preceding pages of this article. It is recognized, of course, that the original study done by Sanderson on standards of living of farm families in Tompkins County and later developed more completely by E. L. Kirkpatrick in his book *The Farmer's Standard of Living* was a real contribution to standards of living studies which had been made up at that time. Their insistence upon a differentiation between levels of consumption and standards of living was significant, in addition to the methods and techniques developed later by

Kirkpatrick in his standards of living studies.

Sanderson also made a contribution in the field of teaching. A great deal of what had been taught particularly in the rural sociology field and in sociology as a whole, as far as that goes, was mostly traditional social problems of the family or historical aspects of the development of the family from a sociological point of view. I feel that Dr. Sanderson made a real contribution in developing courses at Cornell which attempted to get at the real interests and needs of the students from the standpoint of their pre-marriage as well as marriage interests and family relationships. Not only did he develop these courses of a practical nature but he also, I think, pioneered in attempting to bring together into a closer teaching relationship the other specialists on the campus from psychology, home economics, etc. His efforts, I believe along with the cooperative efforts of others involved at that time, were the forerunner of what today constitutes a coordinated and integrated piece of teaching in the field of marriage and family on the Cornell campus.

A third contribution and the last I shall mention, consisted of his writings and contribution to the literature. Although he finally published books in the field of rural sociology and rural community organization and nothing in the field of rural family, he did contribute many articles to professional journals dealing with this whole field of the farm family, thus stimulating interest and think-

ing along the direction along his own particular point of view. I am sure had Dr. Sanderson lived and worked in this field a few years longer he would have probably finished and published a book dealing with the farm family. He had prepared a great deal of mimeograph material bringing together facts from the fields of anthropology and other sources which he used in connection with his teaching. These chapters showed the usual thoroughness with which he approached any problem and would have made a significant contribution to the literature on the field of the family had it been completed.

It is difficult to review the contributions of a man with so many diverse interests, but one outstanding regret seems to cling to my mind with reference to Sanderson's contribution to the field of the farm family. He did formulate a sound scientific framework within which research should be done. He did, through his various students and his own writings, demonstrate the validity of his point of view and some of the ways in which research material should be accumulated and used for the purpose of ultimately filling in the content of this theoretical framework which he had formulated. The unfortunate note, however, in my estimation, lies in the fact that as far as I

am aware, none of his students have carried on his attempt at developing a sociological science applied to the family. Most of them have become involved in modern practical technological endeavors of one sort or another, and although I do not wish to discredit the subsequent efforts and contributions of these various people, it would almost be possible to say that there is hardly one who is devoting his life to the field of science in continuing and further developing the idea of sociological science of the family as formulated by Sanderson throughout his career.

For those of us who had the pleasure of working with and under the direction of Dr. Sanderson, I think we shall never lose the emphasis which he placed upon basing practical endeavor upon scientific knowledge. Even this may be a valuable continuing contribution which he may have made through his students, even though as a whole, none of them seem to be specifically carrying on his zeal and quest for scientific knowledge in the same sense that he did. It is to be hoped, however, that his emphasis in the field of the family will not be lost because of the immediacy of many of the practical problems on which rural sociologists and others are working today.

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The Concept of the Community

By Douglas Enslinger† and Robert A. Polson††

Dwight Sanderson came to the field of rural sociology with a strong interest in the application of the methods of science to the social problems of rural people. His years of experience as a zoologist and agricultural experiment station administrator undoubtedly influenced his interest in developing scientific classification systems and descriptive techniques applicable to social phenomena.¹

One of his chief contributions in the field of rural sociology was the accurate description of the rural community as a social unit. His doctor's thesis at the University of Chicago was a study of the rural community and his early research projects at Cornell University were a continuation of this interest. Soon after he arrived at Cornell he initiated a long

series of research projects on delineating community areas.² Sanderson, his colleagues, and his graduate students at Cornell as a result of this extensive series of studies, developed methods of analyzing the local spatial organization of rural societies. Rather precise methods were developed for identifying communities, neighborhoods and describing the relationships between locality units of various size.³ In these studies attention was given to the types of services furnished rural families by various sized community centers and the influence of larger centers upon the

† Bureau of Agricultural Economics and Federal Extension Service, U.S.D.A.

†† Cornell University.

¹ Dwight Sanderson, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1942), p. 12. "As the chemist describes atoms and molecules, and their combinations and how they behave, and the biologist describes species, genera, families, and orders, their structure, physiology, and mode of life, so the sociologist in a manner adapted to his subject matter must describe the composition, structure, and behavior of the various forms of association recognizable in human society . . ." "The primary effort of rural sociology as a science should be the accurate description of the phenomena with which it deals, namely, the forms of association in rural society, the family, the community, the church, the school, the lodge, and the numerous organized societies and informal, unorganized groups which are becoming more numerous in modern rural life."

² In cooperation with C. J. Galpin of the United States Department of Agriculture, Sanderson undertook one of the early cooperative studies between the State Experiment Stations and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics in rural sociological research. Similar projects were initiated in Wisconsin by Kolb, in Missouri by Morgan, in North Carolina by Taylor and Zimmerman, and in Washington by Yoder. However, Sanderson carried on a more extensive series of studies than any of the others who cooperated in this early work. *The Social Areas of Otsego County*, Cornell AESB 442 (Ithaca, New York, July, 1923), was the first of this series. Warren S. Thompson, now head of population research at Scripps Foundation was joint author of this bulletin. For a good historical account of the development of community research see: Editor Ralph Linton, *Science of Man in the World Crises*, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1945), chapter by C. C. Taylor, "Techniques of Community Study and Analysis as Applied to Modern Civilized Societies."

³ Dwight Sanderson, *Rural Social and Economic Areas in Central New York*, Cornell AES B 614 (Ithaca, New York, June, 1934), pp. 100. A Summary publication of the studies on community delineation.

smaller nearby rural units. He measured and described the influences impinging upon community centers changing the nature of their services to people.

Developing the Concept of the Community

While Sanderson was thought of as being more interested in the analysis of social structure than in analyzing social processes, his definition and treatise of the community was highly psycho-social. He looked at the community as being in process of change toward larger service areas and thus altering the forms of associations between the people and between the people and their institutions in given space and time. He saw it in process and not as a static social structure. From a conceptual point of view, he viewed the community first as evolving from people living in association with each other. As these associations became concentrated within a given area, resulting in sharing common basic institutions, the area took on the character of a community.

Subsequently Sanderson defined the rural community as "that form of association maintained between the people, and between their institutions, in a local area in which they live on dispersed farmsteads and in a village which is the center of their common activities."⁴

⁴ Dwight Sanderson and Robert A. Polson, *Rural Community Organization*, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1939), p. 50.

He further describes his concept of community and particularly the social dynamic that creates and maintains it as a unit of society as follows, "Furthermore, the community is not only a system of association between the individual persons and families within a given area but of their organizations and institutions to which the people often have a greater loyalty, a keener sense of belonging, than they do to the community. The real community is the devotion to common interests and purposes, the ability 'to act together in the chief concerns of life.' It consists of a recognition upon the part of individuals and their organizations of a common obligation to the general welfare. Thus the dynamic basis of the community is a common controlling idea, or ideal."⁵

Sanderson was very much interested in repetitive studies in order to measure the effects of social trends and to obtain data to accurately describe changes in the structure and functioning of rural communities. He followed up J. M. Williams' early study of Waterville, New York, privately published under the title *An American Town* in 1906, with restudies in 1928, 1933, 1938 and was looking forward to another at the time of his death.⁶

⁵ Dwight Sanderson, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*, p. 278.

⁶ W. G. Mather, Jr., T. H. Townsend and Dwight Sanderson, *A Study of Rural Development in Waterville, New York*, Cornell AES B 608, (Ithaca, New York, June, 1934), pp. 39. A restudy of Waterville was completed in 1945. H. E. Thomas, *A Study of the Impact of the War Upon a Rural Community*, a Ph.D. thesis, Cornell University, June, 1945.

Although Dr. Sanderson's personal writings and research were largely in the field of the structure of the rural community, he had a real appreciation of the need for more knowledge of the social processes operating within the community unit. He encouraged his colleagues to apply the newly developed techniques of social psychology and statistics to the study of the locality units of rural society. On several occasions he urged the authors of this article to pursue research on the social processes whereby community leadership marshals public opinion to obtain consensus for action on public issues, and particularly community improvement projects. Toward the end of his professional career he was quite interested in the status group or social class analysis of contemporary communities. He recognized this phase of community analysis in Chapter 25, "Class and Caste of Rural Society" of his book, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*.⁷

Applying the Concept of the Community

Rural sociology to Dwight Sanderson was a phase of the social science of sociology and subject to the rigid intellectual discipline of any science. He made a sharp distinction between the science of sociology and the technology of rural social organization. The latter was the art of applying

science to the solution of human problems. This he implies in the title and makes clear in the first two chapters of his last book, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*.

Dwight Sanderson's interest in developing the science of sociology did not lessen his concern for the solution of social problems.⁸ In fact his research activity was motivated by his desire to see problems solved. However, he had a profound appreciation of the need for accurate information and an understanding of problems before entering the arena of social action.

Probably Sanderson's greatest contribution to the applied field came from aiding school people to gain a full understanding of the community as a functioning unit in society. The application of his research data on the delineation of rural communities played a significant role in New York State's rural school centralization plan. He worked extensively with school administrators and frequently advised them on the results of his research and how it applied to their plans. He advocated the careful location of new schools in those village centers that were the foci of emerging dominant communities. He promoted community use of school buildings and community use of school staff, vocational training programs

⁸ Dwight Sanderson, *Rural Sociology and Rural Social Organization*, p. 18. "All this knowledge of group life and of the factors conditioning it is of value only in so far as it will enable us to show how the social organization of rural life, the improvement of human relations, and satisfaction in the rural environment may be advanced."

⁷ Dwight Sanderson, *op. cit.*, Chapter 25. See also H. F. Kaufman, *Prestige Classes in a New York Rural Community*, Cornell AES Memoir 260, (Ithaca, New York, March, 1944), pp. 46.

for rural youth, health services, instruction in music, dramatics and public speaking, and well developed school libraries open to the public.⁹

Sanderson also took an active part in working with religious leaders, aiding them in seeing the full potentialities of the community as a force making for a richer rural life. He advocated the application of his community research to the administration of rural church programs. Church leadership was encouraged to develop community larger parish plans, and to organize local clergy for inter-church cooperation.

The use of the community unit in the organization of the Extension Service programs was advocated throughout his career as a sociologist. Sanderson's title book, *Leadership for Rural Life*, was an attempt to interest extension workers and all people working in rural areas in understanding the sociology of volunteer leadership. Within his own department he encouraged his extension staff to engage in intensive community planning experiments involving the use of community councils, community surveys, and methods of diagnosing community problems. The emphasis was always on community analysis, not on schemes or formulas for organization. He believed thoroughly in fitting the plan to the community, not the community to the plan.¹⁰

⁹ E. T. Stromberg, *The Influence of the Central Rural School on Community Organization*, Cornell AES B 699, (Ithaca, New York, June, 1938).

¹⁰ Douglas Ensminger, *Diagnosing Rural Community Organization*, Cornell University Extension Bulletin 444, (Ithaca, New York, September, 1940).

Projected Lines of Research

A careful analysis of past research on the community and its organization, to which Sanderson has been a major contributor, reveals several blind spots in our knowledge about the structure, functioning and changes occurring in rural organization. When we size up the job ahead and recognize the things we do not know about rural society we might be inclined to criticize what has been done. Such is not the thought the writers wish to imply. The type of research needed in the future is clear only because of the information past studies such as Sanderson's have revealed. Research and its findings are cumulative; each piece of research adds to and builds upon previous work. What we visualize as needed for the future has its roots in the past and stems from our present knowledge.

We suggest that the future orientation be rural organization, not merely community organization. This is in keeping with Sanderson's conceptions. He studied other groups than communities. Rural people are organized in many different patterns to make possible their participation, formal and informal in local and non-local activities, programs and services. It should be the function of research to discover, analyze and follow changes in all the patterns of rural organization, as well as study the structure of each group. This does not mean the community is being relegated to a less important position in our research. It does follow, how-

ever, that all other patterns of organization should be given more consideration and that we should look at the whole complex field of social relationships of which the community is only one, so that we can better see the arrangement and functioning of people in social space. It emphasizes the fact that inter-group relationships are equally or more important than the study of group characteristics.

This new orientation carries with it the implication that future studies must give more attention to the analysis of social processes. Here again is a point of view Sanderson was giving increasing emphasis to in his later years. It will call for greater use of psycho-social techniques of analysis. Such studies should be of increasing interest to lay leaders, educators, religious leaders, and administrators of action programs for they will not only reveal how society is put together (structure) but also how it operates (functions). If studies are well done they will reveal ways and means of more effectively working with rural people and influencing changes in education, religion, family, health, nutrition or government.

Just what would such studies entail? Always there must be a starting point. We have to agree upon some segment of society for analysis. In the past we have delineated communities and studied the structure and social relations of the delineated area. Less frequently have we studied relationships between communities and

the forces of the larger society which interact and impinge upon them making for change, conflict and frustrations.

Since the county is becoming more and more of a dominant force in rural America and is itself one unit of organization, it might be well to explore the possibilities of starting with the county as a universe of study. We could then proceed to discover the patterns of social relationships which express themselves within the arbitrary boundaries of the county. Countywide social relationships and functions such as government, education, agricultural programs and agencies, health programs, countywide organizations, etc., should be described and analyzed in the meticulous ways Sanderson definitely studied the rural community. Having seen the county as a unit we should next proceed to look "inward" to discover all the basic patterns of organization. We should discover and delineate geographic groups, clearly reveal the nature of the social stratification, find out how people organize on a formal basis, understand the significance of informal groupings or cliques and the part each plays.

There are several reasons for taking the county as the unit. First some consideration should be given the consumers or potential consumers of our research. Most of the agencies serving and working with rural people have county offices with an administrative charge to serve all the county's population. Second, the long-time trend is for the county seat town

to increase in its position of dominance.¹¹ By starting with the county as our unit of study we start where the "agency people" start. If we consider all the major patterns of social organization and do an adequate job of analysis, showing relationships, then our research will be focused to meet their needs. From the point of view of the researcher there will be nothing unnatural in this approach.

Third, one of the significant trends in rural America, in urban areas as well as rural, is the increasing number of organizations for special purposes. While many of these are community centered in that they draw membership from the community area, many are also county- or area-wide and are organized to attract only highly interested individuals. These organizations are playing an increasingly important role in such fields as policy determination. Many of them have state and national affiliations and are extremely well organized. A significant number of these groups are strictly local and came into being to meet a specific need. These may or may not be long-lived. To fully understand the significance of these groups we must go beyond the boundaries of the community. We must do more than mere listing and describing of these organizations, nevertheless thoroughly accurate description of each is necessary. Studies should reveal not only who participates but why. Of great concern is

¹¹ Exceptions are those rather rare instances where the essential services are concentrated in some center other than the county seat.

that segment of our rural society which does not now participate in organized group life. Studies of special organizations would be incomplete if they did not shed light on why some people participate and others do not.

Fourth, since the long-time trend in rural organization is for the county seat town to increase in social importance, we will, if we take the county as our unit of study, be better able to follow this trend and see the relationships of outlying communities of the county seat. The county seat town might be considered the focal center of the universe studied, unless it is not the main organizational center in the county.

If it were not for the complexity and thus the need for keeping the study area to manageable proportions, we could select a larger area made up of a major city and service center for the adjacent rural communities. Such a study unit would make it possible to delineate and classify the major specialized service and organizational areas and more fully understand the human relationships of the rural community as it functions as a part of the great society. In selecting the county as our study unit we must operate on three levels of rural organization analysis—county, within the county and beyond the county.

Research geared to a further analysis of social relations—arrangement of people in social space—needs to be broader than the geographic community. By looking at the social structure first as it shows itself on a wider

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basis such as a county and then to look at community similarities and differences should reveal some of the most significant things about rural life. It is important that future studies in rural organization give consideration to class structure. We know that class structure is significant in influencing organization participation, change, leadership and explains differences in values.

Only recently have the rural sociologists begun researching on social values. Clearly this is an area of great importance; knowledge of the basic values goes far toward understanding why people think and act as they do. Our future research, therefore, should reveal more about rural beliefs about farming, family life, religion, education, science, government, etc.; more about the attitudes people have toward rural life and industry; and more about the ever-increasing sources through which people get information and are influenced. In our quest for an understanding of the social organization within the county we should study the dominant values and see how they are related to the different social interest groups, communities, and the class structure.

During recent years there has been an upsurge of interest in making opinion surveys. These have revealed what people think about given fields of inquiry. They do not, however, tell why people think as they do. For the Extension Service and other agencies who seek to induce culture change we must go beyond what people think

and find out what elements in the culture explain why people hold the attitudes they do. To induce change we do not start with changing the attitude but rather with changing the elements in the culture which produced the attitude.

Past studies of leadership have given too much attention to the leader as an individual. Sanderson emphasized that leadership is a social phenomena. We need to look to future studies of leadership as a part of social process. Here is an area where sociologists can make a real contribution in aiding those who seek to influence or change habits of rural people, for leaders hold the key to cultural change. We should find out who are the leaders, making sure that we have located both the leader of conspicuous position to casual observers and the one who works inconspicuously from within the social structure. We should seek to learn how these people established themselves in positions of leadership and to what status groupings they belong, also their ability to work with and influence people in other status groupings.

Without going into further details, what we have outlined should reveal the basic patterns of rural organization within the county—covering the range from county and community organizations and government to informal groupings. Next we should seek to find out how change occurs. It is within this area that the next major contributions should be made. This will be possible only if we have adequately done the first job.

When studying cultural change we should be interested in its nature and extent to be sure, but of equal if not more importance is to know how it was brought about. Sanderson was ever interested in learning about what changes were occurring and to learn their true significance. The two things can be done as a part of the same research process. First, record the nature and extent of change in such basic things as population, health, education, family and group relations, government, religion, and agriculture. Second, discover the forces influencing these social trends.

Change occurs as a result of forces from the outside and from within. For the outside forces making for change we can further assume there were carriers which influenced people's thinking, attitudes and values. We should therefore seek to discover what part formal organizations, including government agencies, informal organizations and leadership played. Having discovered the carriers and forces making for change, we will have revealed much about how new ideas can be inserted into rural culture and their effect upon the culture.

In analyzing the external forces making for change the county becomes particularly adapted as a unit for study, for it is more or less of a focal point through which many of the forces of the Great Society reach people. By starting with the county we can look within to see how outside forces impinge upon and secure participation of people and then look out-

side the county and see how local people express themselves in wider interests and issues and participate in nonlocally originated organizations.

The internal forces making for change may be very subtle but nevertheless very real. Such things as increased population pressure on the resources may result in gradual migration of the more capable and better educated youth. Failure to give adequate care to the soil may have the long-time effect of forcing a lower level of living. Whatever the forces are they need to be discovered and their effect upon the people and their patterns of living ascertained.

But What of the Future?

We must readily admit that there is a great lag between research findings and the application of science and this is particularly true in sociology. Why? There are a number of factors which contribute to this situation. The sociologists are themselves mainly responsible for this lag. Most of the present leaders in rural sociology are research trained—that is, research is their primary interest and focus. Few of them have had the interest or opportunity to put their theories and research findings to the test of social action. The result is talk in the abstract of the usefulness of sociological information by sociologists and an expressed feeling of disappointment on the part of the administrators that sociology is not practical.

A contributing factor is that our departments of rural sociology are to-

day primarily interested and equipped to train people in research methods. The net result is we continue to neglect the important assignment of training people in the application of the science.

Rural sociologists have in the past been far from agreement as to what an applied rural sociologist should do. Because this has been the case, rural sociology extension when viewed on a nation-wide basis is a hodgepodge. It is more misunderstood than understood. Altogether too many extension workers think a rural sociologist's major contribution is promoting recreational group activities.

As was true in analyzing past research, a careful look at our experiences in the applied field should give us some guideposts for the future.

Let us agree that the major focal point of rural sociology is social relationships—be it research or extension. In the applied field this should and must spell itself out in programs to put to work our knowledge of rural organization, social participation, social values, leadership and social change.

If sociology is to make the contribution it stands to make in the applied field, it must free itself from the present departmental project ap-

proach as now exists in extension and become a full partner of the extension team. As presently set up the sociologist is more inclined to ask the help of extension workers to do the things he has in mind rather than be asked by all extension workers to aid in the task of organizing and motivating rural people to accept and act upon extension teachings.

The sociologist should be able to analyze and interpret how rural society is organized and suggest the ways and means of tuning a program into the culture so as to gain acceptance and bring about change. He can do this only if he has the necessary theoretical background and concerns himself with the major task of aiding in the social organization, participation, leadership and social change problems of rural people.

What we in essence have said is, first, that all types of rural groups should be studied in the careful fashion Sanderson demonstrated, second, they should be studied "in process" as well as "in structure," and third, that they should be studied in their functional — interacting — relationships to each other. We have suggested that the county is an apt area, or laboratory, for study of all of them.

NOTES

Edited by Paul H. Landis

RELATION OF IRRIGATION TO POPULATION

The effect of irrigation on the total population of an area is of real importance in the planning of irrigation developments. Plans must be made for towns, schools, roads, churches, and other public and semi-public developments that will be used by the total population, rather than by the farm population only. Some of the benefits of irrigation accrue to these townspeople and if wisely planned, the irrigation development may well assess a portion of its costs to the nonfarm population supported by it. On the other hand, overly optimistic estimates of the number of nonfarm persons that will be associated with an irrigation development serve no useful purpose, and may lead to erroneous conclusions as to the worth of the development. This analysis seeks to bring out some of the existing relationships of population groups in irrigated and nonirrigated areas in the 11 Western states and to draw some conclusions from them.

Any attempt to use census data to study conditions in irrigated and nonirrigated areas immediately is complicated by the fact that there are very few counties in which all the farms fall in either category. In most of the 410 counties in the 11 Western states there are some irrigated and nonirrigated farms, the proportion varying greatly from county to county.

SELECTED COUNTIES

The total acreage in farms in 1940 was 255,605,636 acres and was made up of 93,316,209 acres in irrigated farms and 162,289,427 acres in nonirrigated farms. Thus there were 1.74 acres of land in nonirrigated farms per acre in irrigated farms. Recognizing the limitation of the data, a selection of counties was made, based on the ratio between the two groups of farms. A county was classified as nonirrigated if it con-

tained 10 times this ratio; that is, 17.4 acres, or more of land in nonirrigated farms per acre of land in irrigated farms. Conversely, a county was classified as irrigated if it averaged one-tenth or less of the ratio, 0.174 acres or less, in nonirrigated farms per acre in irrigated farms. The counties lying west of the summit of the Cascade Mountains in Washington and Oregon were omitted because of the humid climate of that area. This selection resulted in 79 irrigated and 40 nonirrigated counties.

Most of the counties were predominantly agricultural. In the irrigated group, 73 per cent of the persons employed in basic industries in 1940 were employed in agriculture. Persons employed in the following industry groups, as set up for the 1940 Census of Population, were considered as working in basic industries: agriculture, forestry and fishery, coal mining, crude petroleum and natural gas production, other mines and quarries, logging, sawmills and planing mills, and the manufacture of the following products: food, textiles, apparel, furniture, paper, chemicals, petroleum and coal, leather, stone glass and clay, iron and steel, nonferrous metals, machinery, autos and equipment, transportation equipment, and other manufacturing.

For the nonirrigated group, the proportion in basic industries was 77 per cent. Included in this latter group, however, were 2 counties, Marin County, California, and Spokane County, Washington, that are appreciably different from the others because of their large urban populations. Marin County is across the Golden Gate from San Francisco and many of its residents are employed in the city. Spokane County includes the city of Spokane, which serves as an important trading center for a large area in eastern Washington and northern Idaho. The omission of these two counties from the

averages raised the proportion of persons employed in agriculture to 88 per cent of all persons employed in basic industries in the 38 remaining counties.

SERVICE OCCUPATIONS

The ratio of workers employed in the basic industries to the workers employed in all other occupations, termed service occupations in this article, was selected as one measure for comparing the two groups of counties. In the 79 irrigated counties there were 1.03 workers in service occupations for each worker in a basic industry and in the 38 nonirrigated counties, 1.05 workers. Because of their large urban populations, Marin County, California and Spokane County, Washington, have been omitted from the averages. To minimize the effect of nonagricultural employment, ratios were calculated for the counties in each group in which the workers employed in agriculture represented 75 per cent or more of all workers employed in basic industries. For the irrigated group the average included 42 of the 79 counties and resulted in a ratio of 0.92 worker in service occupations per worker in a basic industry. For the nonirrigated group the average included 30 of the 38 counties and likewise, resulted in the same ratio, 0.92 to 1.0, as was obtained for the irrigated counties.

VARIATION

There was a wide range in the ratios among the counties in each group. For the irrigated counties it was from 0.31 to 5.66 workers in service industries per worker in a basic industry. For the nonirrigated, it was from 0.32 to 6.89. In view of this wide range, the difference between the two groups of counties is not significant. Expressed in other words, it does not appear that irrigated farming will support a higher ratio of workers in the various service occupations than will nonirrigated agriculture.

To test further the relationship between workers in basic industry, particularly irrigated agriculture, and workers in other occupations, ratios were computed for all

counties in California and Colorado, the two states with the largest acreage of land irrigated.

There were wide ranges in the ratios among the counties in each state. In California, the range was from 0.5 in Sierra County to 6.9 in Marin County. In Colorado the range was from 0.3 in Dolores County to 5.9 in Denver County. The average ratios for the two states were 2.6 and 1.9, respectively.

Those counties in which 75 per cent or more of the workers in basic industries were employed in agricultural work were considered predominantly agricultural. In these counties there were fewer workers in service occupations per worker in basic industry than in the nonagricultural counties. In the 18 California counties in the predominantly agricultural category there were 1.3 workers in service occupations per worker in basic industry. In the 38 Colorado counties predominantly agricultural, the ratio was 1.0 to 1.0. This does not mean necessarily that agriculture supports fewer service workers than other basic industry. Because of its need for land, agriculture is in the open country, whereas much manufacturing is carried on in urban areas which frequently serve as trading centers for agricultural as well as other basic industry groups. Thus these ratios calculated at county levels for the agricultural counties do not take into account the persons employed in service occupations in the major cities of the area and who serve persons on a regional or state-wide basis. The ratios for the individual states of the area averaged somewhat higher than the average ratios for the counties just discussed. They ranged from 1.1 workers in other occupations per worker in a basic industry in Idaho, to 2.6 in California. The ratio for the United States was 1.3 to 1. The ratio for the 10 Western states, excluding California, was 1.6 to 1. The number of workers in service occupations per worker in a basic industry is high in California because of the numerous service occupations catering to the vacation trade, retired persons, entertainment industry, etc.

TOTAL POPULATION

So far, this analysis has dealt with employed workers and not with total population. There were 3.1 persons in the total population per employed worker in the irrigated counties and 3.0 in the nonirrigated group. These numbers are slightly higher than the 2.9 persons per employed worker average for the 11 Western states.

One other factor still is needed in translating the probable number of farms on a new irrigation development into the probable population of the area after the irrigation has become established. That factor is the number of workers employed in agriculture per farm. For the 11 Western states this ranged from 1.1 in Washington to 2.1 in California and averaged 1.5 for the area.

BROAD RELATIONSHIPS

The variability of these data from county to county and from state to state suggest that considerable difficulty will attend any attempt to forecast the probable future population of an area to be developed through irrigation. The data do suggest certain broad relationships, however, and while it is recognized that they are subject to many limitations, they may prove of some value in the planning work connected with irrigation developments.

In the 11 Western states there were 1 to 2 employed workers in agriculture per farm. The average for the region, excluding California, was 1.3. The exclusion of California would seem justified in view of the public policy of encouraging small family-sized farms in contrast to the large corporation farm development that definitely influences the averages for California.

There are workers in the various service occupations for each employed worker in a basic industry. The number varied from less than 1 to almost 7 among the counties studied. The extreme variability of this relationship makes the selection of any one value exceedingly difficult. The average relationship in the 10 states (California excluded) was 1.5 workers in other industries per worker in a basic industry. The analysis

of this relationship in the counties that were predominantly agricultural suggests that 1.0 worker would be in the county where the basic industry was located and 0.5 worker in the major cities of the area.

For each employed worker there were 2.7 to 3.8 persons in the total population in the 11 Western states with an average of 2.9 for the region. In the 139 counties studied in detail, the average was 3.1 persons in the irrigated group and 3.0 in the nonirrigated group. These data suggest that 3.0 persons per employed worker might be an acceptable figure.

Summarizing these data, we arrive at the following general relationship between number of farms and population:

1. For each farm, 1.3 employed workers in agriculture.
2. For each employed worker in agriculture (a basic industry) 1.5 workers in service occupations. This means a total of 3.25 employed workers per farm.
3. For each new employed worker, a total of 3.0 persons would be added to the total population. This would mean 9.75 persons per new farm developed.¹

These approximate relationships held for nonirrigated as well as irrigated farms and if nonirrigated farm units are broken up as a result of the irrigation development, the number so eliminated should be calculated and offset against the number of new irrigated farms.

This analysis has not dealt with density of population. This subject is complex enough to merit separate study. It is a subject not well adapted to analysis with data by counties. Some irrigated areas rep-

¹ This figure is nearly 20 per cent lower than that of 12 persons per farm used by the Bureau of Reclamation in its Missouri Basin Report. See "Conservation, Control, and Use of Water Resources of the Missouri River Basin," Bureau of Reclamation, Washington, D. C., May, 1944, pages 9 and 10. The use of the more conservative estimate developed in this article would forecast a population increase of about 500,000 persons compared with the prospective increase of 636,000 envisioned by the Bureau of Reclamation.

resent small, compact settlements in the midst of desert areas. To compute the population of the county per square mile of total area would result in a relatively low density figure. In other cases, the major community of a small irrigated county may serve as the trading center for nonirrigated farms outside the county. One controlling feature in density of population in irrigated

farming areas will be the type of farming. In planning irrigation developments, the general type of farming for a particular development can be forecast with considerable accuracy if data on soil, climate, and markets are analyzed adequately.

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CURRENT BULLETIN REVIEWS

Edited by Conrad Taeuber†

THE VIRGINIA POPULATION STUDY

Students of the problem have long felt that conventional population analysis has had too little influence on state planning and on public policy in general. Infused with imagination, it should help to motivate a democratic society to conserve and develop its human resources. Moreover, if population analysts are able to make reasonable forecasts, their work should be useful in actual planning for the extension of state services and facilities, as well as in the long range strategy of developing natural and industrial resources.

A long range study in Virginia will offer a test of this viewpoint. As early as 1939 a conference called by the Virginia State Planning Board led to a plan for a study of population problems by the Planning Board, to be coordinated with studies of land utilization by the Virginia Polytechnic Institute, and of industrial development and opportunities by the University of Virginia. Main offices were established in the State capital at Richmond, the whole study was adequately financed and was able to build on previous citizen interest and to establish close relations with state agencies. Five reports have been issued by the population study.

The first two studies published were designed to help the state plan its programs to meet specific needs. *Trends in hospitalization for mental disease and mental deficiency*¹ prepared for the Virginia State Hospital Board was calculated to aid the board in estimating future needs. On the basis of first commitments to various state hospitals rates were analyzed by type of mental disease and for population groups by color. This was followed by a study of the population trends in the Hampton Road Area² which by 1942 had already become the state's major problem zone. In this report John A. Clausen related population change to the economic changes that have taken place in Virginia's port area since 1910. Separate chapters are devoted to (1) population and employment trends from 1890 to 1940, and to changes and adjustment demand both in (2) the First and (3) the Second World Wars. The effect of the war on population composition is shown and community problems and the postwar outlook are presented especially as they refer to housing, recreation, and employment. For a scene of prosperity and full employment, "the human adjustment to the

¹ *Trends in Hospitalization for Mental Disease and Mental Deficiency in Virginia*. Prepared for the State Hospital Board. Population Study Report No. 1. Richmond, 1942. 63 pp.

† Assisted by Elsie S. Manny, Barbara B. Reagan, and Edgar A. Schuler.

vicissitudes of rapid industrial expansion" presented a surprisingly dreary picture. Here was evident a need for planning that could not be met in the urgency of war.

In the third study, a contribution from Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Allen D. Edwards related *farm family income and patterns of living*³ to land types and employment off the farm in an attempt to evaluate factors influencing farmer's income in Henry County, an area in which manufacturing had become a more important factor than agriculture. The method used required the matching of census schedules of population, agriculture, and housing for the individual farm families with the Land Class of each farm as developed by the Department of Agricultural Economics at Virginia Polytechnic Institute. Valuable conclusions were developed in both content and method. The amount of land in crops, land class, value of products grown for home use, and the amount of off-farm work were found to be important factors whose effect on farmer's income could be measured. Income was then related to family composition, fertility, mobility and the amount of education and housing. The study makes several contributions to method in the field of farm income studies.

Two succeeding reports on over-all population analysis are less concerned with planning or with contributions to method. Sara K. Gilliam's study treats of the *growth and distribution of the population of Virginia from 1670 to 1943*.⁴ Chapters are devoted to (1) the total growth of the population from colonial times to the present, (2) urban and rural growth since the first census, (3) the trends by region since the Civil War, 1860-1940, and (4) changes in com-

position by age, sex, color and community size, closing with (5) an analysis of migration and its effects from 1870 to the present. This is presented in terms of regional and rural urban movement from 1930 to 1940. Fertility and mortality data are not discussed and no attempt is made to analyze replacement rates or to forecast future population.

In Gittler's *Virginia's People: A Cultural Panorama*⁵ the study is carried forward by relating population to cultural and social indices. Chapter II devoted specifically to population analysis reviews the data on (1) recent changes, (2) population composition of race, sex, color and community type, (3) fertility, and (4) employment status both by race and by residence. Succeeding chapters relate population to housing conditions, education and educational status, recreation and social participation, and indices of personal and social disorganization. The last topic is developed by analysis of the figures on the extent of crime, probation and parole, juvenile delinquency and divorce. Some suggestions for planning are found in chapter summaries but "no effort is made to prove any thesis with the data presented". (p. 12).

Further developments in Virginia have included the relocation of the population study and renewed emphasis on popularizing the results of its studies. Headquarters have been moved from the State Planning Board to the University of Virginia and its organization has been integrated with that of the Bureau of Industrial Research. In its first publication, the new Bureau of Population and Economic Research has depicted *Virginia's economic pattern in a series of maps of selected eco-*

² *Population in Flux. A Study of Population Trends in the Hampton Roads Area, 1890-1942*. By John A. Clausen. Richmond, 1942. 70 pp.

³ *Farm Family Income and Patterns of Living: An Analysis of Original Census Schedules and Land Classification of Henry County, Virginia, 1940*. By Allen D. Edwards. Population Study Report No. 3. Richmond: Virginia State Planning Board, 1944. 83 pp.

⁴ *Virginia People: A Study of the Growth and Distribution of the Population of Virginia from 1607-1943*. By Sara K. Gilliam. Population Study Report No. 4. Richmond: Virginia State Planning Board, 1944. 132 pp.

⁵ *Virginia's People: A Cultural Panorama*. By Joseph B. Gittler. Population Study Report No. 5, State Planning Board, 1944. 125 pp.

economic characteristics of counties.⁶ The counties are ranked according to 24 indices based on the Census of Agriculture, Manufacturers, and Population. Finally, popularization has been secured in a series of releases prepared by Director Lorin A. Thompson for publication in the University of Virginia *News Letter* and elsewhere. Contributions from the new Bureau include articles on (1) Virginia's pattern of industrial employment, (2) changes in occupational distribution, (3) population—employment changes since 1940, (4) the postwar labor force, and (5) postwar industrial planning for Virginia. Other studies in progress will present new methods in population analysis and new approaches in state planning.

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John H. Kolb and Douglas G. Marshall, *Neighborhood-community relationships in rural society*, Wis. Agr. Expt. Sta. Res. Bul. 154, 55 pp. Madison, Nov. 1944.

This research bulletin is perhaps the most important single contribution to our knowledge of neighborhood and community in America since publication of Sanders' and Ensminger's study of Chilton County, Alabama, back in 1940. Generalizations (and there are many) found in the report are ostensibly based upon systematic field surveys at 10-year intervals, 1921, 1931, 1941, in Dane County, Wisconsin. On the basis of careful studies over this period of 23 years Kolb and Marshall concluded that:

1. Neighborhoods in Dane County have come, some have gone, but the majority have remained active for over twenty years.

2. Neighborhoods are not isolated nor are they the only locality groups in rural society.

The first conclusion is based upon a methodology that contains obvious flaws. A

neighborhood was considered "active" if associations or functions were carried on in two or more of the five broad fields which were encountered most frequently; namely, educational, religious, social, economic, or communication (p. 2). It is not explained why a neighborhood might not be considered as active while serving only "the need for a sense of personal security and freedom found in intimate groups."

On page 46 the authors define neighborhood as a "group relationship having localized and primary, i.e. personal inter-family associations." Such a definition does not allow the arbitrary designation of "active" or "inactive" neighborhood as employed in the methodology. The authors themselves seemed to sense the invalidity of their premise when they observed: "The social function played a consistent and *important* minor role throughout, especially when in combination with the educational function. (*Italics mine*) It seemed to act as a sort of catalyzer, giving the combination its vitality." (p. 6.)

What seemed to be implied in the major conclusion, elaborated upon more fully in the section on Family and Society, is that the function of neighborhood has changed and not the form of association itself.

In its second conclusion the report breaks with tradition and in so doing may well point the way to more fruitful and realistic research in social organization. Its greatest contribution may well be found in the section Family and Society (which unfortunately is buried on pp. 24-28). The observation is made that "the clusters of families in their informal visiting and work exchange patterns seem to form almost independent of neighborhood or community lines. . . . Neighborhood and community areas fade into the background, while kinship, religions and nationality background, and to an extent business associations, become more prominent." (p. 25) If this be true, this reviewer is prompted to ask the question: "Should we not rid ourselves of the rigid definitions of neighborhood and community and begin to study the rural family in relation to all of its group ar-

⁶ *Virginia's Economic Pattern: A Series of Maps of Selected Economic Characteristics by Counties*. Bureau of Population and Economic Research, University of Virginia, 1945. 26 pp.

rangements?" This study suggests that the answer to such a question must be "yes." The authors make a plea for less rigid definitions when they write as follows:

"The evidence also showed that neighborhoods are related to other groups in rural society; there are ways out. Rural groups are not 'fenced' by mutually exclusive boundaries; they are intermeshed and connected. Furthermore, primary contacts are not confined to neighborhoods." (p. 29)

This reviewer cannot let the opportunity pass to point out the danger of drawing too sweeping conclusions on data gathered from a single county. From this standpoint the title of the bulletin may be entirely too broad. But the authors have attempted, I think successfully, to indicate the general direction our research in social organization should take. If their supporting data seems inadequate it is only because we have not yet built up sufficient data about the field in question so as to take into account the cultural and geographic diversity of the United States. Our task is to see that such studies as this one of the Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of Wisconsin is repeated in many more areas.

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HEALTH AND MEDICAL CARE

The recently intensifying concern about improved methods of financing private medical care, particularly through prepayment plans, gives timeliness to the newest edition of Federal Security Agency's useful publication on prepayment organizations.¹ It contains information regarding 235 such organizations in the United States, and 16 in Canada, for early 1945 as compared with 219 for 1943 in the second edition. In addition, more space is devoted to summarizing materials, both textual and statistical. Of special interest will be the tables showing for 1943 and 1945, by state and type of plan, the numbers of persons eligible for care on a prepayment basis.

Figures from the 229 plans in the United States for which coverage data were available show total persons eligible for care

under prepayment plans increased 50 per cent between 1943 and 1945 (from 3.3 to nearly 5 million). Those eligible for relatively complete services of physicians, however, increased only 30 per cent (from about 2.3 to nearly 3 million). Even less reassuring is the fact that almost all of the latter increase took place in only two states, Washington and Oregon. Such data raise questions about the ability of private and voluntary participation plans to provide coverage of adequate scope for the bulk of our population.

In the introduction to its report on health,² the U. S. Department of Agriculture Interbureau Committee on Post-War Programs states that "Farm people are deeply concerned about their health and their medical services. There are many groups planning and many different ideas, but farm people are more or less agreed on what they want. (1) They want more doctors, nurses and dentists in their communities. (2) They want more hospitals and better sanitary facilities. (3) They want more preventive medicine and public health clinics. (4) They want easier ways of paying their doctor bills. (5) They want all the benefits of first class medical science that they read about." The report then outlines reasons for these wants, steps taken to remedy health problems in rural areas and possible steps toward solutions in the future.

The study of *preventable deaths in North Carolina*³ is founded on the two basic assumptions that: (1) The geo-physical conditions in rural and urban areas of North Carolina are as favorable to a low death rate as in any other state; and (2) the people of North Carolina are as sound biologically as are the peoples in any other state. Therefore, death rates comparable to the lowest in the nation are to be expected

¹ Margaret C. Klem. *Prepayment Medical Care Organizations*. 148 pp. Bur. Memo. No. 55. Third Edition. Federal Security Agency, Social Security Board. Washington, D. C. June, 1945. (Copies available at U. S. Government Printing Office at 25 cents a copy.)

in North Carolina and the fact that 37 states had lower adjusted death rates than North Carolina in 1940 indicates that there were many preventable deaths in North Carolina. Preventable deaths are those deaths which would not have occurred if the death rates by age in North Carolina had been as low as those in any other state's major residential group. The report presents detailed tables and an estimate of preventable deaths by counties. It concludes that "It may be safely assumed that the death rate for each age group in the state could be lowered to the lowest death rate that prevails in any age and residence group in the nation. This is possible by means of a complete medical care program that will reach the needs of everyone."

POPULATION

In-migrant families living in Webster, a suburb of Rochester, N. Y.,⁴ are younger than the resident farm and nonfarm families. They have, on the whole, more young children, they are better educated, and they differ also in occupational status and in patterns of social participation. The three groups share a common appreciation of the advantages and values of rural surroundings and living—but differ in the degree of loyalty to the traditional values of the parent culture, toward money and toward collective responsibility. The resident nonfarm group generally occupies a position intermediate between the resident farm group and the in-migrants. Webster is one of the 140 villages previously studied by Brunner.

The present study was done late in 1944. Every household in the village was visited by enumerators who used schedules cover-

ing composition of family, commuting status, educational status, occupational activities and related data. The household schedules were supplemented by special studies of institutions and organizations, by records, and by more detailed interviews of more than 600 residents to find "what Webster—old and new—thinks of the problem of suburbanization."

Rural-reared householders living in Lexington, Kentucky,⁵ were, on the whole, at a disadvantage when compared with urban-reared householders in the same city. Rural-reared householders were found in all income groups, in all the neighborhoods, at all levels of education, in all types of occupations, and in all kinds of houses. Differences among the two groups of householders were less among persons under 40 years of age. Rural-reared householders shifted less from one rental class to another than urban-reared, but they moved from one residence to another in the same rental class. Rural-reared householders had larger families and less space per person in their homes. There were no observable differences in social participation of the two groups. These findings are based on a study of a sample of 297 households in Lexington.

FARM OWNERSHIP

McMillan and Duncan have reexamined the data of surveys done at Oklahoma A. and M. College during the last 10 years and on that basis they conclude that in Oklahoma:⁶ Farmers whose parents were landless only rarely become farm owners themselves. Farmers whose parents were landowners achieve farm ownership in far greater than expected proportions. Smaller proportions of children of nonowners than of owners of farms remain in agriculture. The proportion of ownership tends to increase with age of farmers. Between 1930 and 1940 there was an increase in the proportion of farm ownership which was due to the increasing proportions of older farmers more than to any other known factor. Inheritances are becoming an increasingly important factor in the attainment of farm

⁴ U. S. Dept. of Agr. Interurban Committee on Post-War Programs. *Better Health for Rural America*. 34 pp. Washington, D. C. Oct., 1945.

⁵ Selz C. Mayo. *Preventable Deaths in North Carolina*. N. C. Agr. Expt. Sta. Progress Report No. RS-6. 12 pp. Raleigh. Sept., 1945.

⁶ Earl Lomon Koos and Edmund deS. Brunner. *Suburbanization in Webster, New York*. 95 pp. Department of Sociology, University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y. 1945.

ownership. Relatively, farm ownership tends to be greatest among livestock farmers and least among cotton farmers. Educational achievement and number of children born to a family had no direct relation to farm ownership.

FARM HOUSING

Average housing index scores of 696 rural families of southwestern and southeastern Oklahoma⁷ decreased in size for tenure groups in this order: part owners, full owners, tenants and families not dependent primarily on farm operation for their income. Families with children under 15 had lower housing scores and as housing scores increased the percentages of persons over 44 years old living in these dwellings also increased. High housing scores are positively related to participation in organized community life. The relation of the housing index to schooling, illness, immigration, size of farm, type of farm, and possession of tractors is examined. Appendixes describe the sampling procedures used and the construction of housing scores.

RURAL GOVERNMENT

After 2 years of study and planning the Blue Earth County Council on Intergovernmental Relations⁸ reports on its progress toward "blending more harmoniously the powers and interest of federal, state, and local governments in the execution of their common purposes." This is one of the county programs sponsored by the Council on Intergovernmental Relations. Concerned over "the growing trend toward a top-heavy

organization in government at the state and federal levels and toward confusion in government within the community," the County Council began its work with the conviction that the success of national programs depended upon the vitality of local government. Nearly 300 government units and agencies operate in the county, half of them are engaged in local government. These have 680 elected officials, 487 appointed officials, and 363 other temporary employees. Thirty-eight federal and 105 state agencies carry on some work in the county. The organization and functioning of the County Council are described.

FARM LABOR

The bulletin, *Mexican war workers in the United States*,⁹ describes the main characteristics of the agreements between Mexico and the United States on the recruitment of Mexican nationals to harvest war crops and to assist in the railroad maintenance-of-way work in critical areas in the United States. The manner in which the agreements have been carried into effect up to December 31, 1944 is also discussed. This report deals with the agricultural labor program and with the railroad labor program separately, discussing under each, such topics as contracts, financing and administrative machinery, housing, food, medical services, education and recreation facilities for the workers, grievance machinery, and possible effects of repatriation. Employment conditions are described in considerable detail, and the attitudes of the workers are shown where possible. The labor situation in the United States and the failure effectively to redistribute the nation's manpower are related to the demand by employers for importation of Mexican nationals.

*Wages and wage rates of hired farm workers, United States and major regions, March 1945*¹⁰ is the first national report of the new enumerative sample surveys conducted by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics on wages and wage rates of hired farm workers. These surveys differ from

⁷ Howard W. Beers and Catherine Heflin. *Rural People in the City*. Ky. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 478. 19 pp. Lexington, July, 1945.

⁸ Robert T. McMillan and Otis Durant Duncan. *Social Factors of Farm Ownership in Oklahoma*. Okla. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. B-289. 32 pp. Stillwater, Nov., 1945.

⁹ Robert T. McMillan. *Social Factors Related to Farm Housing in Southern Oklahoma*. Tech. Bul. T-22. 28 pp. Oct., 1945. *Farm Housing in Southern Oklahoma*. Bul. 290. 23 pp. Nov., 1945. Okla. Agr. Expt. Sta. Stillwater.

¹⁰ Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *Wages and Wage Rates of Hired Farm Workers, United States and Major Regions, March 1945*. Washington, D. C., 1945.

the wage data previously available in that the wage and related information is obtained from the farmer for each hired worker employed on his farm during the reporting week. In the regularly issued BAE series on farm wage rates, the averages presented are based on an average reported for his locality by each of a group of farmers, known as "Crop Reporters," who are sent mail questionnaires. In the new surveys the farms surveyed were selected by the master sample technique from a sample of 158 counties, and the surveys permit estimates by four major regions of the United States. The average wage rates are computed on an individual worker basis. The workers are also distributed by the amount of the wage rates and by characteristics of the workers to show variation.

This report presents data obtained from 20,000 farms during the third week of March 1945. Of the 6,500 hired farm workers covered, over half were in the South. A fifth were in the North Central region, less than a fifth were in the West and less than a tenth were in the Northeast. More than four-fifths of the farms with hired labor had only one or two workers during the week. However, these farms had less than half of the total number of hired workers employed. The average hourly cash wages earned varied widely among the four regions. In the South, which had the largest group of workers, the average hourly earnings were 29 cents and in the North Central the average was 28 cents an hour. On the

other hand, the average hourly cash wages earned in the Northeast were 34 cents and in the West 62 cents. The nation-wide average hourly earnings were 35 cents. Over 90 per cent of the hired farm workers in March were males. In the South, less than half of the hired farm workers were white; while in each of the other regions about 95 per cent of the workers were white. Of the male workers not employed in crews, 40 per cent were from 18 to 34 years old. Only about 5 per cent were 65 years old or over and only about 11 per cent were under 18. Nearly all of these were from 14 to 17 years old. Over half of the hired workers on the farms surveyed in March were regular hands whom the farmers expected to employ for approximately 6 months or more during the year. For the United States as a whole, these "regular" workers received lower hourly cash wages than those hired for shorter periods. In the Northeast, North Central and West the differences between the hourly cash wages earned by regular and seasonal workers were even greater than the national averages. Regular hired farm hands worked longer hours per day and more days per week than did the seasonal workers. The steadier employment more than offset the lower hourly wages paid regular workers, for the regular workers averaged \$18.00 cash wages for the week of March 18-24 compared with \$13.00 earned by seasonal workers on the reporting farm. The regular workers also received much more in the way of items furnished without charge by the farmer such as meals or housing. The workers surveyed were paid different types of cash wage rates as monthly, weekly, daily, hourly, or piece rates. When allowance is made for the different time periods involved, day-hands were paid the lowest unit-time rate. The average day rate for workers not furnished meals was \$2.65 for the country as a whole. On the other hand, hourly rates, which average 57 cents an hour for the United States, were the highest basic cash rates on a time basis. The monthly rates paid in March averaged \$99.30 for workers not furnished meals and \$67.10 for those

*Blue Earth County Council on Intergovernmental Relations. *Democracy Trains Its Microscope on Government in Blue Earth County, Minnesota*. 33 pp. Council on Intergovernmental Relations, Mankato, Minn. 1945.

*Robert C. Jones. *Mexican War Workers in the United States*. 46 pp. Div. of Labor and Social Information, Pan-American Union, Washington, D. C. 1945.

*Louis J. Ducoff and Margaret Jarman Hagood. *Wages and Wage Rates of Hired Farm Workers, United States and Major Regions, March 1945*. 56 pp. Surveys of wages and wage rates in agriculture. Report No. 4. Bur. Agr. Econ., U. S. Dept. Agr. Washington, D. C. Oct., 1945.

provided 2 or more meals per day without charge.

In addition to this national report on wages and wage rates of hired farm workers in March 1945, this series will also include reports on two other national surveys made in 1945, one in May and one in September, and reports on wages of seasonal harvest workers in about 60 special crop areas of some 12-15 states.

MISCELLANEOUS

The Servindia Kerala Relief Center in India in two reports¹¹ describes the results of food famine in the early 1940's, including the exodus of some 15,000 persons to other areas. The report on "Food Famine and Nutritional Diseases" summarizes numerous surveys of malnutrition, nutritional diseases and the food situation. Detailed tables for small areas include individual deaths by age and cause and for individual families the amount of food consumed, number of meals per day and days without meals, a measure of condition of the dwelling and nutritional deficiency diseases. The report on the exodus from Travancore to Malabar jungles describes the famine-induced movement and includes case studies of individual colonies of refugees.

*Traditional food preparation rules*¹² taught to 1,158 small town homemakers of Mississippi were analyzed in order to understand prevalent food preparation practices. Older homemakers and those with less schooling have more often been taught food preparation rules by their mothers or someone else at home. About 64 per cent of the rules given by white homemakers and 68 per cent by Negro homemakers concerned preparation of vegetables. Reasons given for the rules were: (1) to tender or cook quicker, (2) to make more healthful, (3) to improve flavor. Flavor was given more relative importance by whites, to tender or cook quicker by Negroes. More of the rules given by younger homemakers concerned food types (vegetables, meats, cakes, etc.) rather than particular foods. Eleven per cent of all preparation rules reported by

white women and 3 per cent of all reported by Negro women were negative rules which more frequently represented modern attitudes and beliefs. Many cake and bread rules were outdated because of better methods of preparation. Changes in food preparation should take place with (1) increased nutritional information, (2) development of new techniques, (3) changes in processing, and (4) changes in taste.

*Some educational problems in Peru*¹³ are described in two articles dealing with (1) the educational work among the rural population and (2) the evolution of the public education system now in operation. An effort is being made to reach all elements in the rural population through different types of schools. The rural schools teach Spanish, the formation of civilized habits, training in agriculture, livestock raising and industries and crafts akin to farming occupations. Community schools teach the advantages of agricultural cooperatives through communal use of lands, water supplies, etc. and by letting the students share in the profits. The home school encourages students, especially the women, to put into practice in their own homes what they have learned, transforming their huts into civilized dwellings. Cultural brigades and school patronages (akin to the Parent-Teacher Association of the United States) travel over the country trying to better the cultural and labor conditions of the Indians and promoting cooperation among parents and teachers. Twenty normal schools giving teachers special training for their tasks in these rural schools have

¹¹ Servindia Kerala Relief Center. *Food Famine and Nutritional Diseases in Travancore (1943-44)*. 265 pp. July, 1945. *The Exodus from Travancore to Malabar Jungles*. 39 pp. Aug., 1945. R. S. Puram Post, Coimbatore, S. India.

¹² Dorothy Dickins. *Traditional Food Preparation Rules*. Miss. Agr. Expt. Sta. Bul. 418. 60 pp. State College, June, 1945.

¹³ Max H. Minano-Garcia. *Some Educational Problems in Peru*. 70 pp. The Univ. of Texas Institute of Latin-American Studies. Occasional Series 1. The Univ. of Texas Press, Austin, 1945.

been established but it will be some time before these can fulfill the educational needs of the rural people.

The author describes the evolution of public education in Peru including the Law of Education first operative in 1920 and the Organic Law Relating to Education passed in 1941. This law has three general aims—democratization of education, placing of the school at the service of work and obliteration of illiteracy. Its educational policy may be summarized as (1) state control without excluding private cooperation, (2) equal opportunity for all to be educated, without fees, (3) promotion of technical training among laborers and peasants. "Christian spirit—core and guide of western civilization—nourishes and vitalizes the whole plan. The objectives are culture, physical health, morality and love of country, all converging toward social and international peace, and fitness of the youth for any emergency that the national defense may demand."

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BOOK REVIEWS

Edited by Howard W. Beers

Guaranteed Annual Wages. By Jack Chernick and George C. Hellickson. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1945. Pp. vii + 146. \$2.50.

This book represents a type of collaboration that should be more widely used in presenting economic problems and programs to the public. Chernick is an economist who has devoted a great deal of study to the problem of annual wages. Hellickson, on the other hand, is a newsman (*Minneapolis Star-Journal*) who is trained in presenting facts and ideas in a manner that is interesting and understandable to the general public. This, perhaps accounts for the fact that there are few places in the book where the reader has to stop and figure out just what the authors meant to say. The result is a book that is well worth reading and thinking about.

The authors would probably be among the first to agree that in a book of this length they have not covered fully and completely the practical and theoretical aspects of annual wages and guaranteed employ-

ment. This comment is not, however, to be construed as an adverse criticism. A short book that touches briefly upon a number of pertinent points and omits certain others is much better suited for use in seminars and discussion groups than is an exhaustive treatise, and is certainly more likely to create enough popular interest to bring about both formal and informal discussion of the problems with which it deals.

The authors present the thesis that the guarantee of either a specific annual income or a specific number of hours work per year would be good for the workers, good for their employers, and good for the general public. Furthermore, it is contended that for most industries such a guarantee is entirely practical. In support of their position the authors present more or less in detail three case studies of successful plans that are now in operation. They quote freely expressions of satisfaction from both management and labor, point out briefly some of the favorable economic developments resulting from the introduction of

such a plan by the dominating industrial establishment in a small city, present a (necessarily) hypothetical description of its extension to the building trades on an industry-wide basis, and from time to time base their arguments upon pertinent economic theory.

It appears to this reader that the book could be improved considerably by the simple process of organizing the material differently and more carefully. Chapter 1 deals with the effects of intermittent employment upon individual workers, and nine chapters intervene before there is a discussion of social consequences of the layoff. Chapters 2 and 3 describe the instigation and operation of three existing plans selected for detailed study, but the effects of these plans upon the workers and upon one of the communities are not found until the reader reaches chapters 9 and 10. The first and last chapters are about the only ones that occupy what are unquestionably their logical positions.

The authors fail to differentiate clearly enough between plans which guarantee a specific annual wage announced in advance, those which guarantee employment at a wage that depends upon the sort of work actually done, and those which guarantee employment at a wage that depends upon the selling price of the product produced. Undoubtedly the plans differ with respect to their private and social benefits, the industrial management problems associated with them, their effects upon costs of production, and perhaps also their effects upon the "spending psychology" of the workers. It is an error to lump different types of plans together under the title of "guaranteed annual wages" and by implication claim for all the expected advantages of each.

The historical tendency has been for industrial prices to remain fairly rigid while production and employment fluctuate in contrast to the tendency for agricultural prices to fluctuate while production and employment remain more or less stable. This situation has presented one of the

major arguments in favor of government price supports for farm products. It is therefore intriguing to a person interested in agricultural problems to find that the authors of *Guaranteed Annual Wages* claim that the employment of industrial labor on an annual basis would tend to impart flexibility to industrial prices and stability to industrial employment. The argument is that if industry were (like agriculture) in a position where most of its costs had to be met whether or not anything was produced, goods would be produced and sold even if they would bring only a low price. Like many other attempted analogies between industrial and agricultural production, this line of reasoning could lead to serious difficulties.

In the first place it is to be noted that a very large proportion of the labor employed on American farms is family labor, whereas virtually all industrial labor is hired. For family labor the return (wage) for work done depends upon "profits" after contractual costs and taxes have been paid. That wage may be much or little depending upon how much gross farm income exceeds contractual costs and taxes. If wages of family workers are considered cost items, there is a considerable degree of flexibility in farm labor costs. Furthermore, farmers like most other business men usually take on and lay off hired workers seasonally if the nature of their operations makes such desirable. It is only on a farm that is wholly family-operated that the living expenses of labor constitute an overhead cost on farms, and the actual amount, for farm being contracted for in advance, is a variable that depends upon volume of production, non-labor costs, and the price of the product. The only comparable situation under a guaranteed annual wage plan would be a case where the wages of labor and salaries of management varied directly with the gross income of the company making the guarantee.

JAMES M. STEPP.

Clemson College.

The American Way of Life. By Harry Elmer Barnes and Oreen M. Ruedi. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942. Pp. xxi + 802. \$5.00.

This book is very largely a revision of the senior author's *Society in Transition*, published in 1940. The plan for the revision was worked out by Dr. Barnes and the re-writing and condensation, for it is a somewhat shorter book than the original, was carried out by the junior author with the assistance of others.

The book is designed to serve as an introduction to the study of American social institutions and social problems, viewed against the background of their historical development and in the light of the exigencies of contemporary social changes. The analysis and interpretation throughout the book is in terms of the theory of cultural lag. The thesis of the book is perhaps best expressed in the Preface by Dr. Barnes. He writes, "In facing, as we do, either utopia or social collapse, our age is unlike any other in history. We have brought into being an empire of machines admirably equipped either to serve us constructively or speedily to wreck our civilization altogether. Whether these machines will bear us to utopia or consign us to oblivion depends very directly upon our ability to subdue them to the positive service of humanity. We must throw about them a set of institutional controls as efficient and up-to-date as the machines themselves. It is our failure to do this in the years now behind us which has placed man in his present sorry state. We have vainly tried to control our complex urban-industrial world civilization with ideas and institutions which, for the most part, antedate the era of George Washington. In an age of dynamos, we seek to direct society by windmill thought and action in the institutional realm. This so-called cultural lag lies at the heart of all our ills today."

The content and arrangement of the book is as follows: It is divided into nine parts. The first is historical, setting forth the theory of cultural lag, the rise of the industrial revolution and modern urban-industrial society. The second, called The So-

cial Framework of Human Life, discusses human needs and forms of group and institutional organization. In the third, The Physical Basis of Society, such problems as waste, conservation, population, migration, race, and health are covered in individual chapters. The fourth deals with The Economic Foundations of Society, and includes the development of agriculture and industry, private property, and capitalism. The fifth, on Political Institutions, discusses the state, representative government, political parties, democracy, civil liberties, international relations, law and justice. Part six, Communication and Public Opinion, includes developments in transportation and communication, propaganda, censorship. In part seven, Leading Social Problems, the revolution in rural and urban life is considered, as are also problems of the family, the community, education, leisure and art. In part eight, Social Pathology, the problems of poverty, mental disease, crime, penology, and personal maladjustment are taken up. The final section is concerned with Programs of Economic and Social Reconstruction, and contains a comparison of the programs offered by totalitarian governments with those of liberal capitalistic countries.

As the above summary indicates, this book is an inclusive survey of contemporary individual and social disorganization. Though somewhat uneven it is often informative and suggestive. Its shortcomings are: (1) Some of the material already is "dated," as is inevitable with any book on social problems within two or three years after publication, but which especially effects this book, written in the middle of the war, now that the war is over and we are launched upon postwar adjustments. (2) Although it is a partial condensation of its predecessor and is a better book for that reason it is still overloaded with facts and comparatively light in interpretation. (3) Much too frequent and facile use is made of the concept of cultural lag, not as it should properly be used as a tool for the analysis of social problems, but as a handy weapon to condemn social practices, institutional pat-

terms, ideas and values which the authors regard as obsolete or otherwise undesirable. In spite of these limitations it is a useful book for the student of the contemporary American scene.

GEORGE F. THERIAULT.

Dartmouth College.

Backgrounds of Conflict. By Kurt London. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945. Pp. xvi + 487. \$3.75.

The microscope is turned on Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, Vichy France, England and the United States in order to observe closely and to compare the institutional life in them and to trace their evolution in the period leading up to and later under the impact of World War II. The yardstick in constant use by the author is democracy, and the first three of these nations are treated as its enemies. We are told that the conflict just ended was more than an imperialistic war. It was an ideological struggle. For this reason, even though the forces of aggression and resistance are suppressed, the ideas implanted remain a future source of danger to democracy.

While Hitler found adequate bases for his program in the ideas given by some of Germany's most eminent scholars, from Kant's categorical imperative and Hegel's absolutism to the Anglo-German, H. S. Chamberlain's racial theories, Mussolini could find no such basis in Italian thought. Instead, he borrowed from Germany the necessary philosophical justification for his puny imperialism. The Fascists did not pursue the new objective so completely as did the Nazis. There was no complete transformation of cultural values. However, Italian education finally became "Believe—Obey—Fight."

Japanese preparation required the repudiation of nothing in her former ideology—only a deepening of faith and a quickening of action. Her's was a faith more perfect than that of the Nazis or Fascists. Resources and skills only were lacking to carry out her objectives. Her use of Western technical knowledge illustrates very effectively how completely physical science in a

culture may be divorced from social and spiritual values.

Vichy France under Marshal Petain and later under Laval attempted to copy the patterns set by Nazi Germany, in general ideology and form of government. Indoctrination and Gestapo methods failed because the people regained hope in an Allied victory.

While the title suggests factors causing conflict, the author gives very little attention to these. He shows how objectives were created and vividly describes the processes of conditioning men, women and children for total war. Planning is shown to be an essential part of the program of each nation described, but they group themselves into those that sacrifice the individual for the glory of the state (Germany, Italy and Japan) and those that emphasize the welfare of the individual as the primary goal (Russia, Britain and the United States).

A look at the postwar period suggests some of the problems to be faced. The proposals of the National Resources Planning Board are summarized, and many other reports are enumerated.

Evaluations are skillfully made throughout. The reader can see a general aversion to Nazi-Fascist-Japanese practices, though often effectiveness in accomplishing objectives is pointed out. Recent efforts of the United States under Roosevelt to make reforms and particularly of England to democratize its institutional life are openly commended. "Britain . . . may well be the first country in the world to furnish the example of democratic evolution from a constitutional class state to a cooperative liberal democracy." Similar praise is given Russia in such statements as, ". . . the world faces a profound modification of the conception of property and will have to divert its attention from profit to service."

The reviewer believes that very close editing would alter a few awkward expressions found in the book, but there is no desire to offer this as a serious criticism. The reader will find a selected bibliography for each country treated and complete documentation throughout. These and other desirable

features make this volume a very valuable contribution to the literature of the social sciences.

ROY E. HYDE.

Louisiana State University.

Human Leadership in Industry. By Sam A. Lewisohn. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1945. Pp. viii + 112. \$2.00.

The author of this small volume is president of the Miami Copper Company and past president of the American Management Association. His approach to the problem of labor-management relations is in refreshing contrast to that of many employers who are disposed to place the blame for current industrial disputes entirely upon labor unions and their leaders.

Mr. Lewisohn's central thesis is that the primary responsibility for good labor relations rests upon management. "When things are not going right it is common sense to start at the top in locating the difficulty." (p. 23) Notwithstanding increased attention to the field of personnel administration in recent years, most employers have continued to regard problems of human relations in their own plants as of secondary importance in comparison with matters of a technological or business nature. "*The real difficulty of labor relations has been one of neglect.* Executives have treated the question of human organization as a minor matter, not as a major problem." (p. 105)

One reason for this situation is the relative neglect of the social sciences in our engineering and business colleges. Intelligent leadership in any field of collective effort in the modern world requires at least an elementary understanding of the basic principles of sociology and social psychology. The efficient organization of labor and management for industrial production is no exception to this rule.

In the development of his central thesis the author accepts the potentially constructive role of labor unions but warns against the dangers of industrial autocracy, whether on the part of labor or management. He is a vigorous defender of capitalism and

objects to the assumption that modern labor problems are the peculiar products of a capitalistic economy. Critical readers may detect a degree of pro-management bias at various places throughout the volume but on the whole the treatment is objective and the main conclusions convincing.

T. G. STANDING.

New York State College for Teachers.

Community Organization for Social Welfare.

By Wayne McMillen. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. 658. \$4.75.

Professor McMillen of the School of Social Service, University of Chicago, has written a very practical and useful book for beginners in social work. It should be "required reading" for executives of social work programs and recommended reading for professional community leaders.

Although the primary focus is urban, there are brief descriptions of the application of social work organization ideas to rural areas. Rural sociologists will find it interesting. Extension Rural Sociologists and those who teach undergraduates planning to enter the fields of extension work, rural welfare or rural health will find it useful as a reference book and for supplementary readings.

The presentation is practical and functional, not theoretical and systematic. The first section of the book labeled "Process" includes chapters on: Community Organization—a process in social work, Functional Social Agencies—private and public, The Relationship Between Public and Private Agencies, The Development of Agency Leadership, Agency Leadership in the Community, Identifying Problems for Study, Individualizing the Community, The Approach to the Community, and Public Relations and Community Organization. Professor McMillen's social work organization ideas are presented in this section. Part II, labeled "Structure", is a series of eight chapters, describing types of social welfare organizations and their function in social work. It is essentially an annotated inven-

tory of welfare organizations and agencies—local, state and national.

The term, community organization, is defined and used in the social welfare sense. Most rural sociologists would prefer the term, organization for social work, for much of the presentation deals with organization techniques for administering social work programs, rather than community planning.

Professor McMillen uses the concept "community" to cover several types of collectivities. Therefore, he says, "Thus, in the field of social work, there is no single definition of the term 'Community' that will serve all occasions." He believes the concept of community, for his purposes, should include (1) service area or geographic communities, as rural sociologists use the term; (2) political unit communities, such as townships, counties, cities or wards; (3) communities of interest, such as trade unions, religious sects, political groups or ethnic collectivities.

Although the reviewer differs with the author on some of his terminology and theoretical statements, he whole-heartedly applauds the systematic presentation of practical suggestions that Professor McMillen has compiled from his long experience in social work. The author demonstrates in nearly every chapter how knowledge of a community and its groups is essential to the successful administration of social work programs.

There is a bibliography in the form of readings at the end of each chapter. A series of forty-six documents are appended to the several chapters, containing carefully selected material supporting the text.

ROBERT A. POLSON.

Cornell University.

The Role of the Aged in Primitive Society.

By Leo W. Simmons. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1945. Pp. vi + 317. \$4.00.

The Role of the Aged in Primitive Society is based upon a study of the literature on the status and treatment of the aged in seventy-one primitive societies. The author

attempts to determine the securities which may be provided by various cultures and the part that the aged play in seeing that security is provided. He also attempts to find what uniformities exist in primitive societies in treatment of the aged. Peoples were chosen representing significant variables such as racial differences, cultural areas, manner of sustenance, and as far as possible, so-called primitive peoples or those of antiquity.

In each chapter the author shows ways in which old people have been able to achieve positions of security and prestige through their personal initiative. He has made correlations of association between the economic and social organization of different societies and the position of the aged in these societies.

In presenting the material concerning the methods which the aged have used to gain the exclusive rights to eat certain foods, to achieve prestige, and to have the sole power in the field of magic and religion, the author conveys the idea that most of the old people in the societies had these rights and therefore were well protected. The reader will question whether the generalization here is not too broad. In our modern society only a limited few of the old people have achieved security and rights in different fields. Our Edisons, Fords, Mayos, and Holmeses have achieved and maintained positions of leadership in old age. However, the masses of old people in our society are forgotten men. Although those who have made careful studies of primitive societies have noted the prestige assigned to old people, one wonders whether such prestige was enjoyed by the masses of old people in the primitive societies or by the exceptional few.

The first seven chapters of the book place greater emphasis upon the fact that the aged were able to maintain a position of security and prestige in the majority of societies. The last chapter on reactions to death seems to contradict the position taken in the first seven chapters in that the old people in primitive societies had no guarantee of security when they were quite old

and feeble. In many tribes they were permitted to die from neglect or were killed by some member of the tribe.

The study will be of interest to people who are working in the field of old age because of the fund of information given as to how the aged have attempted to gain security for themselves. The author of the book recognizes, however, that it is difficult to be objective in weighing the evidence of different authors who, in some cases, presented conflicting reports, imperfect information, and material based on subjective judgments. Recognizing these difficulties, I believe that *The Role of the Aged in Primitive Society* is a worthwhile contribution to the literature in the field of old age.

JUDSON T. LANDIS.

Michigan State College.

The Farmer's Last Frontier. By Fred A. Shannon. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc. 1945. Pp. xii + 434. \$5.00.

This meaty volume is one of a projected nine-volume economic history of the United States. The author tries to view the last forty years of the nineteenth century "as the farmer saw it," and to picture the farmer "as he affected and was influenced by the world in which he worked and lived."

The main regions of the nation are dealt with in separate chapters in which the economics of characteristic crops share the space gracefully with pertinent regional discussions of national problems such as foreign trade, mechanization and its social and economic effects, credit and marketing.

This section, the heart of the book, is preceded by three chapters dealing with soils and the farmers' adjustment to them, the trend of settlement in the period and the disposal of the public domain. It is followed by chapters on governmental activity in agriculture, the agrarian uprising, the co-operative movement and finally one on the farmer and the nation.

An extensive, annotated bibliography of 33 pages, which follows the chapter organization, closes the book. This last feature is well done and should prove quite valuable, for Dr. Shannon is as ready to use works

of fiction as works of history or economics where they apply and has been as faithful in the examination of periodical sources as of those contained in government reports or books.

The style is vigorous. The author is not afraid to state his conclusions, some of which will bring dissent. The reiterated "established rule," "that for every city laborer who took up farming, 20 farmers flocked to the city to compete for the vacated job or place in the bread line" (pp. 55 and 357) will bring raised eyebrows on the part of those who read into the measurements of the increased production of goods and services per capita the proof that our economy was in the main an expanding one during the forty years covered.

Rural sociologists will be glad to have the sorry story of the dissipation of the public domain, not to say the prostitution of the objectives of the Homestead Act, told as succinctly and at the same time from as broad a point of view. The analysis of the rise of share cropping and of southern class structure, is similarly valuable, and it should be added, sympathetic. The frequent and sometimes extended use of population data will be of interest even if complete agreement will not always follow. Similarly the discussions of the farmers' political movements, of farm labor, the farm home, rural school and rural church show an awareness at least of the interrelation of social and economic factors. True, save in some points of view, such discussion will bring no new knowledge. Doubtless an economist reviewer could make a similar statement. The point is that the various considerations are interwoven into a coherent whole. The total on-going process is made the clearer thereby. This sort of historical work on this period has long been needed. We can be glad it has been competently done.

EDMUND DES. BRUNNER.

Columbia University.

The Japanese Nation. By John F. Embree. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Incorporated, 1945. Pp. xi + 308. \$2.25.

It is difficult for most Americans to understand the nature of Japanese culture because it is so alien to our own. Japanese emphasis upon group values, their extreme sense of honor and shame, their highly formalized codes of inter-personal behavior and their attitudes toward suicide are examples of unfamiliar culture patterns.

Part of the uniqueness of Japan is the result of the carryover into the modern industrial era of so much that is primitive and feudal. The caste system, the *samurai* virtues of Spartan living, the sacredness of the Emperor, and the special status of the "virtuous farmers" in contrast to the "money-grabbing merchants" can all be traced back to the feudal period.

Dr. Embree's book was written to give Americans a better understanding of Japan and he has done a good job of bringing together much factual information on the history, government, class structure, religion, education and other aspects of Japanese culture. The book is of special interest as an attempt of an anthropologist to apply the methods of social anthropology to a social survey of a modern nation. Dr. Embree has been in Japan a number of times and is the author of a well-known study of a Japanese village. The present survey is based primarily upon secondary sources but throughout, the author draws upon his first-hand experience in Japan. This is especially evident in the chapters on government, religion and culture patterns.

Dr. Embree writes of modern Japan with the same detachment, sympathy and understanding that an anthropologist generally uses in describing a primitive tribe. This has its advantages and disadvantages. While it is an excellent antidote to the passions engendered by the war it seems, in this case, to lead to a lack of sufficient critical analysis, particularly in those sections of the book which deal with recent social and political events. The author relies heavily on official Japanese government explanations and points of view, without always presenting them as such. In his discussion of the Japanese government he tends to emphasize the social integration

and social solidarity it has achieved rather than its coercive and repressive nature. If the author has any bias in favor of a democratic system he does not reveal it. The "disbanding" of the independent labor unions and the outlawing of political parties is explained simply as "... a result of the government program of unity. . . ." (p. 122) and the technique of "thought control" is described as "one response of the nation to threats of national disunity." (p. 110). Although the author describes the complicated net-work of government controls such as the control of the radio and newspapers, the presence of federal police in towns and hamlets, the extensive intelligence system which includes the compilation of dossiers on all individuals and the government control of labor unions, farm organizations and other organizations, he nowhere identifies these controls as part of the apparatus of the modern fascist state.

OSCAR LEWIS.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Systematic Politics. By Charles E. Merriam.
Chicago: University of Chicago, 1945.
Pp. xiii + 349. \$3.75.

The author of this book is primarily concerned with government, but his approach to governmental problems is indicated by the statement, "Government is set in a series of associations, all concerned with the development of the human personality in the frame of reference of the group—economic, cultural, familial, political." The ends of government are fivefold: external security, internal order, justice, general welfare, and freedom. The tools of government are: custom, violence, symbolisms and ceremonialism, strategy, and leadership (the importance of leadership is emphasized throughout the book). The organs of government are adjudicative, conciliar and managerial.

As to adjudication, it is not all "inside the political society." Arbitrators spring up everywhere and the rules of conduct laid down by the community are enforced sometimes by "tolerated private reprisal" and sometimes by "spontaneous mass action."

The term "conciliar" denotes not only the legislative function, but also the work of advisory and consultative groups. Legislative bodies have lost prestige because they represent "narrow electorates and interests" and because of the rise of pressure groups. The effect of the latter is not wholly bad, however, since they make "the participation of special groups in the community more effective." Dr. Merriam has noted the influence of the chief executive on legislation but he does not emphasize the growth of administration and the importance of the expert as causes of the aggrandizement of the executive office and of the comparative decline of the legislature.

The study of public administration and close attention to the details of organization and management are relatively new. Much additional study and many new approaches are needed, for, "Contrary to the general view, the defense of human liberty depends in large measure on the procedures and spirit of public administration." Administration must be planned, indeed, "a planning agency may be made the central point in the coming development of public administration." Planning, however, must not be narrow in scope, neither business, agricultural, welfare, scientific nor educational planning alone, nor even budgetary and personal planning alone will suffice.

Writing before the advent of the atomic bomb, the author sees clearly the need for new approaches to the questions of national sovereignty and national power, as well as the difficulties involved. He believes that in the future world order "there may be sovereigns, but they will not be absolute, unlimited, and unreasonable."

Much of the material of this book is old but its many new approaches and new points of view will make it valuable to all social scientists as well as interesting and instructive to the general reader. It is written in the well-known Merriam style which makes relatively difficult material easy to read. The author's purpose is to analyze, not to advocate, but he does not hesitate to express his preference for a progressive social policy, more not less democracy, and

a world order built on mutual understanding.

J. E. REEVES,

University of Kentucky.

Food or Famine. By Ward Shepard. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945. Pp. x + 225. \$3.00.

This book is directed at one of the most far-flung and devastating problems facing mankind—soil erosion. The central and pertinent question which motivated the preparation of this volume is; Can man conquer soil erosion or will soil erosion destroy civilization? Soil erosion and war, both man-made are placed in the same category as destroyers of man's civilization. The data presented are drawn almost entirely from conditions studied in the United States during the thirties and the methods put into operation under the Soil Conservation program to stop the movement of our soils downstream.

That there are only two acres per capita of food-producing land in the world, that productive soil is constantly draining to the lowlands, rivers, deltas and the seas, and that soil movements put in jeopardy the large engineering works built to control the floods, reveal vividly the dangers man creates from his own destruction practices. But special experience in the Tennessee Valley and the more wide-spread practices of the soil conservation districts show that whether the erosion is from forest destruction, overgrazing of grass lands or from straight up-and-down-hill plowing, man can prevent soil destruction.

The greater part of the book is given to discussions of organizations of forest area, erosion control districts, and public control and acquisition of land by the public for handling the rainfall. One chapter on the Integral Watershed Development forcefully shows how the building of dams for the control of floods will prove futile without at the same time checking hillside destruction. This can be accomplished by democratic cooperation between large areas, such as that of the Tennessee Valley and the isolated farmer trying to rear his family

on eroding hill land. Conclusions are drawn from what the author has observed over the whole of the United States including the dry lands of the Indians. At many points the reader feels there is much theorizing, but perhaps that is essential.

Taking one perspective, the book may be regarded as especially opportune. No one knows just what the high production during World War II has done to our soils. If and when an appraisal is made it is found that our record crops have been produced at the cost of soil destruction, then this book presents a good summary background of what has been done and from which a new start can be made. But taking another perspective, the book should have appeared five years ago because most of its factual data respecting the destruction of erosion are based on the facts gathered during the thirties.

To the reviewer there is one grave defect in the book. To have conformed to the title, *Food or Famine* facts from China, North Africa, Italy, the Middle East, showing how soil destruction has created famines should have been presented. Such information would have been especially pertinent today since the International Food and Agricultural Organization, the function of which is to wrestle with the production of the world's food, is now in process of formation. However, for the general reader, who will be concerned with the specific problem of soil erosion or food production on a national scale this book provides excellent information.

BRUCE L. MELVIN.

American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Price and Related Controls in the United States. By Seymour E. Harris. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1945. Pp. xx + 392. \$4.00.

The allocation of scarce resources, production and consumer goods and services in the United States by means of rationing and price controls during World War II, was one of the greatest experiments in use of governmental authority in modern

times. The methods used and the results obtained from this experiment is the subject of Mr. Harris' book. This subject is treated in seven parts each of which, with the exception of Part I (which is a summary), deals with a special aspect of the subject. First, there is a discussion of the general aspects of price controls including such subjects as pricing principles, price control and supplies, the relevance of costs (in price policy), and coverage or extent to which price controls were used throughout the economy, and the techniques used which include freezing of prices, price formulas, and differential pricing. In addition to these two main divisions of the book, the author presents "some case studies," special problems, and related controls. There are two final chapters on "The Future of Controls."

This is perhaps the most thorough presentation of the subject of price control that has been published. The author is well qualified both by training and by experience to deal effectively with this difficult subject. On the whole, price control has been a success and has been of great benefit to both the civilian population and the Federal Government. The author, however is quite conscious not only of the difficulties of enforcing controls but also of their limitations. He presents data to show that price control has been effective, in that not only have price rises been checked as to rates, but for a period after the "Hold the line order" was issued, the cost of living was stabilized. Although his contentions could be and have been questioned, it is nevertheless true that price controls were effective in checking and, in some respect, in stabilizing certain items of the cost of living.

One question which always faces the administrator of price controls is: What effect will a given regulation have on production? As the essential objective of all types of regulations is not so much over-all production but production of goods which are needed, it would be expected that the production of some goods would decline, whereas others would increase. And this, indeed, is what happened. Civilian goods production declined markedly after 1941 and goods

needed for the Armed Forces increased. But over-all production is important. If more goods can be produced so much the better. This feat was accomplished under controls. These facts, according to the author, indicate that the controls not only were well conceived but also were effectively applied.

The future of price and related controls is uncertain. Should such controls be continued in the reconversion period is a question which is not dodged by the author. He is of the opinion that some controls are not only advisable but also indispensable in the postwar reconversion period. But he states that wartime approach to price control is not appropriate to the demobilization period. He sets forth his reasons for this opinion in an able and fearless manner.

It is obvious, at least to the reviewer, that price controls and their use will be a subject for hot debate in the postwar era. We have not heard the last of this by any means, and the students of economics and rural sociology will do well to become acquainted with this important subject, not only in a superficial manner but as to details. Those who wish to obtain a fundamental knowledge of this subject will find this book indispensable.

G. W. FORSTER.

North Carolina State College.

Intelligence and Its Deviations. By Mandel Sherman. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1945. Pp. x + 286. \$3.75.

In the words of the author, "The purpose of this work is to present theoretical, experimental, and clinical material on intelligence and its deviations. The subject is presented in such a way that it may be used in courses in departments of psychology and medicine."

Probably the chapter on "Environment and Intelligence" is of the most interest to most rural sociologists. One looks in vain, however, for any reference to what is still, in this reviewer's opinion, the most significant study on rural-urban environmental differentials in "intelligence" as measured by conventional tests—the study by Myra E. Shimberg, quoted at length in Sorokin,

Zimmerman, and Galpin's *Source Book for Rural Sociology*.

Sherman admits that the importance of some of the recent University of Iowa Child Welfare Institute studies of nursery school and foster home environmental influences on intelligence "cannot be overestimated." But his fundamental position can hardly be characterized as environmentalist. The following passage is illustrative:

For example, a child who has never been exposed to pictures or play materials would naturally not be able to succeed on some tests in the Stanford-Binet scale. This does not mean, however, that the test itself is faulty but rather that the child has not had the opportunity to express his intelligence in the *normal* way. Because environmental influences may *determine* performance, and thus measurability, many psychologists believe that intelligence tests should attempt to measure capacity in such a way that performance should *not be influenced* by the environment. (P. 225. Italics added.)

It is hard for this reviewer to see how Sherman, with his Blue Ridge Mountain field work experience, can speak with such assurance of "the normal" environment. And whether environment can ever "determine" test performance or not, the proposal advanced in his last quoted sentence is sociologically a rank absurdity.

In spite of these criticisms, the psychological or medical student will doubtless find that Sherman has conscientiously summarized much of the recent literature on intelligence and such matters as psychosis, mental deficiency, specific brain pathology, epilepsy, Mongolism, and cretinism. There are also chapters on the definition of intelligence, mental growth, intelligence and physical development, intelligence and delinquency, mental testing, the adjustment of the defective, some genetic problems, and intellectual superiority. Bibliography, glossary and index conclude the work.

EDGAR A. SCHULER.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Principles for Peace. Edited by Harry C. Koenig. Washington: National Catholic Welfare Conference, 1943. Pp. xxv + 894. \$7.50.

The appearance in 1943 of this bulky volume occasioned relatively little comment and now that the war is ended it is being eclipsed by less formidable and less expensive works purporting to contain the formula and no simple and easy way to achieve principles for peace this collection of papal documents makes clear beyond any doubt. Here is a variety of pronouncements—encyclical letters, messages to dignitaries of church and state, allocutions to the College of Cardinals, radio addresses to the world, holiday messages, greetings to pilgrims, and even remarks to newly-wed couples—sociologists will find discerning statements of the attitudes, arts, circumstances, and conditions that make for peace. They will find no solution for political problems, for the popes are religious leaders, not statesmen.

In editing *Principles for Peace* for the Bishops' Committee on the Pope's Peace Points, the Reverend Koenig has performed a generous service. The popes of our time have been diligent students of many aspects of human affairs. These documents attest magnificently to the comprehensiveness of their interest in and knowledge of human problems and of the truly universal nature of their pastorate. The papers are chronologically arranged, beginning with the Encyclical "Inscrutabili Dei" of Leo XIII, April 21, 1878, and ending with the Christmas broadcast of Pius XII in 1942. The documents are in English but of many different translations which vary in quality. Each is headed by the words with which the complete document begins in its original language, the traditional method for identifying papal writing. This formal heading is followed by a summary stating the character and content of the enunciation. A comprehensive index to the topics discussed is provided, giving this work a research value frequently lacking in collections of this kind.

This is not a work for the casual student. In fact, a hasty survey of the docu-

ments is likely to leave a neutral, if not a negative impression. It is only on leisurely, reflective survey that the reader comes to understand that these messages, seemingly so diverse and unrelated, are of a whole and that this whole is principles for peace. How complex is peace we are only commencing to know. These documents can greatly further this knowledge. They deal not only with conditions between nations which promote peace but also cover in considerable detail many internal problems of national life. The popes have spoken frequently and with considerable technical insight on the tedious problems of economics which lie behind modern class struggle and many modern wars. They are aware of the importance institutional changes may hold for peace, but they go beyond these and seek to stir in the individual those moral sentiments on which all institutions must rest. The popes have not assumed that the human rights which they earnestly seek for every man and the peace they seek for every community can arise only under a democratic form of government. Students of society will do well to ponder this attitude for it is obviously not a hasty conclusion.

In his Introduction the Reverend Koenig raises this question: "When that hour strikes (the hour for making peace), what role will the Pope play in forging that instrument (the peace treaty) which will decisively determine the character of the post-war world?" To this question each man must make his own answer according to his own knowledge and convictions.

ROBERT W. HARRISON.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Nationalism and After. By Edward Hallett Carr. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945. Pp. 76. \$1.25.

Nationalism and After is a clear, concise essay dealing with the evolutionary processes in national relationships. In a total of 76 pages the author explains that the development of nationalism has passed through at least three periods. The first one began with the gradual dissolution of the medieval unity of empire and church and

the establishment of the national state and national church (p. 2). In this period war became an instrument of mercantilist policy as well as its ultimate end. The second period issued from the turmoil of the Napoleonic Wars and ended in 1914. It was a comparatively peaceful period, but peace was attained through a series of compromises. Qualities of aggressiveness and greed remained and nationalism failed to be a stepping stone for internationalism. Then came a third period which was characterized by a trend toward the socialization of the nation in the sense that it is becoming an agency of service for the people (the author called this "mass democracy"), the nationalization of economic policy, and the geographical extension of nationalism. These elements combined to produce totalitarian symptoms of the third period which culminated in World War II.

The world now stands at the threshold of a fourth period. While there may be some apparent ground for a pessimistic view of the future, certain basic trends point in the opposite direction. Gradually the claim of nationalism to make the state the sole rightful sovereign is being challenged and rejected (p. 40). On the other hand, the proposition that equality and well-being of individuals rather than of nations is the important consideration is gaining acceptance. Rights of individuals irrespective of national affinities or allegiance constitute a driving force for any future international order. Once these principles are accepted, international organization to maintain peace is a possibility. Some readers may not agree with the author's interpretation of historical facts but they cannot fail to realize that *Nationalism and After* is a competent analysis of social factors which contribute to the purpose, growth, and limitation of nationalism. The book is worthy of careful consideration by social scientists.

CHARLES R. HOFFER.

Michigan State College.

The Story of the Springfield Plan. By Clarence I. Chatto and Alice L. Halligan. New York: Barnes and Noble, Incorporated, 1945. Pp. xviii + 201. \$2.75.

In the glaring light of present needs, this little book deals with the most important single problem in the world today: how to get along with one another—not only over the fence in our own backyard, but over the backyard fences that national boundaries have become. And it doesn't stop with reminding us of the necessity of getting along together, and generalizing upon how and why it should be done, nor with a mere analysis of inter-personal or inter-cultural relations. It is the description of a perfectly tangible, concrete, and tested plan of education in these things which has been tried out in the school system of Springfield, Massachusetts, for the last five years.

"The Springfield Plan," as it has become known, is a carefully thought-out application at each grade-level and in each subject-area of a definite philosophy of education: that education is the process of "living, learning, working, and thinking together." This process, as is immediately apparent, is not limited to any age group—it is equally applicable to the young and the old. The program, therefore, though it originated in the schools, does not confine itself to the schools, but stretches out to include people of all ages and stations and many other aspects of community life. It is, in actuality, a *community plan for improving human relations*, and the school system is merely providing the leadership.

The activities devised for this "living, learning, working, and thinking together" are focussed on the elimination of the "four fatal delusions:" that one's own church alone expresses God's will on earth, that one class is superior, that one economic group can only prosper at the expense of another; and for these delusions substitute religious, political, social, and economic democracy respectively.

To a sociologist, the Springfield Plan seems a practical effort toward realizing a complex social aim. It attempts a difficult sociological double-play: to integrate dis-

parate groups into school and community life while preserving and utilizing their special contributions. It is characterized by intelligent recognition of the chief problem in community action: securing full participation by inarticulate, aliterate groups. The sociological note is strongly stressed from kindergarteners on up, one aim being "to develop a working familiarity with a basic sociological vocabulary."

If the core subjects in the curriculum are not lost in the shuffle, it would seem that both Springfield as a community and its school children can only profit by thus enriching the curriculum. The success of this program holds great promise for other communities.

MARY L. DE GIVE.

Rochester, New York.

Where Do People Take Their Troubles? By Mrs. Lee R. Steiner. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945. Pp. 264. \$3.00.

Applied sociologists, social workers, and others who have been engaged in the business of helping people out of trouble have long known that there was a large number of quacks and near quacks selling their "cures" and services to those unfortunate persons looking for surcease from real and imaginary ailments. To the many thousands of sufferers from these emotional afflictions "Doctors of Psychology" have had a magic attraction. Some years ago when the writer of this review was making a study of rural and small town churches in a typical rural county of the state of Washington, he found that the drab little churches in the country towns located "across the tracks" and "over in the flats" were growing most rapidly in membership. As the investigation proceeded, it was learned that those simple-minded, often illiterate and almost always untrained ministers who practiced the art of "divine healing" along with their Christian ministry, were most successful in attracting new members. The wandering, migratory rural workers of the Northwest, with little income, no homes or even places to call their homes, and almost entirely without medical care, sought relief from their mental worries

and their physical ailments from the "Divine Healers." In tents and in little churches often could be seen special booths conspicuously labelled "Divine Healing."

Mrs. Steiner, a social worker and consultant in "personal problems," has surveyed the situation with respect to the practices of the "mental doctors" and the advisors on personality development and summarized her findings in *Where Do People Take Their Troubles?* To get herself on sure ground and in close touch with the arts of the counsellors, healers, and success advisors, Mrs. Steiner subjected herself as a patient to a number of the practitioners.

The ways of serving and exploiting the emotionally disturbed and troubled people seeking solace and aspiring to health, happiness and success, Mrs. Steiner shows to be many and varied. The practitioners of these occult arts have many and peculiarly lettered degrees; they syndicate their counsel through the press; they commiserate with their patients over the air; they guide the uncertain into promising vocations; they provide rendezvous for lonely hearts and find mates for the most forlorn; they convert theology into therapy; they entrance patients with hypnotism; they tell the future destiny of the insecure; and they furnish the exact formula for personality development and life success.

This little book is profitable reading for social workers, teachers, ministers, government workers, and others who are making daily contacts with the many thousands who are having troubles. This reviewer suggests that Mrs. Steiner or someone else make another study as to *why* so many thousands take their troubles to these practitioners of little facility, and give us a scientific analysis of this curious phenomenon in our most enlightened age.

FRED R. YODER.

State College of Washington.

Education for Use of Regional Resources. The Report of Gatlinburg Conference II. Washington: American Council on Education, 1945. Pp. 129.

This report of the second conference held

at Gatlinburg, Tennessee under the auspices of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education of the American Council on Education deals with the methods and procedures which are needed to implement special projects in the field of research translation and resource-use education. Part I describes the backgrounds of Gatlinburg Conference II, and tells what went on during the conference. Part II gives the reports of specialists who discussed resource-use and regional development. Professor Paul B. Sears of Oberlin College dealt with the subject "Man and Nature in the Modern World." Experts from the Tennessee Valley Authority discussed the subject, "Resources: A Basis for Understanding." Finally Professor Howard W. Odum of the University of North Carolina pointed out how "The Sociologist Looks at Resource-Use Education."

These specialists emphasized the need for changes in human culture which will insure the maintenance of the balance of nature. Unless this is done, "nature will put it (the culture) out of circulation, as she has done with many cultures in the past. Since we wish to keep on going, it is well to know how cultures can change and reform themselves."

Part III deals with reports of conference committees which suggest procedures and programs for resource-use education and research translation. Suggestions include a recommendation that a volume on regional resources be published, that material services be established at regional, state and local levels, that the committee publish a news letter, that various techniques be used in resource-use education, that non-school agencies be interested in the problem, and that institutions of higher education emphasize resource-use education.

The Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education through conferences such as the one held at Gatlinburg and its other activities is attempting to coordinate the activities of the many agencies, regional, state and local, which are trying to improve the quality of living in the South, and to introduce into the educational system the

scientific facts which will enable the people of the South to use the rich resources of the region in such a way as to establish a good life which will be permanent. If the report of this conference is used widely the South will cease to be a colony of the centers of wealth and dominance and will no longer be listed as the Number One Problem of the nation.

ROBERT I. KUTAK,

University of Louisville.

When You Marry. By Evelyn M. Duvall and Reuben Hill. New York: Association Press, 1945. Pp. xiv + 450. \$3.00.

This book, as the publishers say, covers the whole gamut of personal relationships "from first date to last baby." In the words of Professor Ernest W. Burgess, who writes a foreword, the book is superior to many in the same field in its presentation of "the findings of recent research in several pertinent disciplines as they have practical application to the many adjustments to marriage and family living;" in the readability and liveliness of style, which "makes it usable not only for students of the family but also for all young people possibly interested in getting married;" and for "its wide coverage of interrelated fields and in their synthesis into a new educational approach."

The present reviewer has been impressed by the wealth of information which the book provides, and by the informal tone of presentation throughout. The functional approach contributes to its readability. The reader is carried along easily from stage to stage along the whole path of relationship between men and women as they travel their way to marriage and beyond.

It may be that the very completeness of treatment gives rise to certain inevitable difficulties. For example, the sexually inexperienced young people who read and discuss together Chapter VII, Marriage and the Facts of Life, may possibly develop a premature preoccupation with whatever mystery there may be still remaining for them in the field of sex experience.

Then there is the problem of the girls who do well in a course based on the book,

becoming very well prepared for marriage, due largely to the excellent aid provided by the book, only to find that in the pairing off of their associates that they get left out, merely because there aren't men enough to go around. One can readily picture such a young woman vainly thumbing her way through the volume, looking for the section which would clearly tell her just what to do next. To be sure, there is the suggestion that she might go to Alaska, where there are 145 men to every hundred women. But even if women were to distribute themselves over the country in the same proportions as the men, there would still be too many of them from the standpoint of an adequate functioning of a system of complete and enduring monogamy. The authors admit that America may be headed for the condition now obtaining in Sweden where "a large percentage of young women" live openly with men before marrying, or without ever marrying. Still they strongly advise their American readers against premarital sexual intercourse.

The whole matter of sex and marital mores is one of confusion, as is true generally of our life at present. Increased knowledge may not serve to reduce the confusion. It probably is the case that a vast amount of inner turmoil is inevitable as humanity works out new standards for itself.

ROY H. HOLMES.

University of Michigan.

Government in Public Health. By Harry S. Mustard. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1945. Pp. xvi + 219. \$1.50.

This publication represents the second of a series of studies undertaken by the "Committee on Medicine and the Changing Order" of the Council of the New York Academy of Medicine. This committee was established in 1942 and began its work in February, 1943. It is composed of physicians, representatives of the allied professions, dentistry and nursing, and laymen. The individuals chosen were particularly interested in the problems of health, preventive medi-

cine and social welfare. This committee has undertaken to enlist a series of experts to compose and publish a series of monographs devoted to the major medical problems of today. They have selected for the authors of these monographs recognized experts and afforded them full freedom in their work. Although this and the other monographs form an integral part of the committee's studies their publications do not necessarily imply the committee's endorsement of statements of fact or opinion but are entirely the responsibility of the authors.

The author of this monograph is especially well qualified to present the subject of public health and its development. Here he emphasizes the rapid extension of the field of public health as one of the important trends in modern medicine. He shows how public health activity originated as a local responsibility and how the state and federal governments have become interested and how, though public health service must be administered largely at the local level the trend is toward greater federal assistance and indirect control. Although historic in perspective, it presents clearly the health problems of today and suggests future trends. In his first chapter he rationalizes the development of public health and its policies as a governmental procedure. In later chapters he gives consideration to federal, state and local health services individually.

This is a concise guide to the numerous ramifications of government in public health and of public health in government. Physicians, public health workers, social workers and others interested in the place of medicine in the changing order should read this monograph.

R. E. TEAGUE, M.D.

Kentucky State Department of Health.

Voluntary Health Agencies. By Selskar M. Gunn and Philip S. Platt. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1945. Pp. xviii + 364. \$3.00.

In a foreword to this report, Dr. Dublin writes, "Until very recently, there has been a dearth of information on the voluntary

health movement as a whole. We have had few facts as to the extent of the movement, its resources, finances and modes of operation. It was to correct this situation that the National Health Council . . . launched the present study in 1941. Its purpose was to bring together such facts and observations with regard to the voluntary health agencies of the United States as would give an overall picture of what was being done at the various levels, national, state and local."

This undertaking was carried out by personal interviews and mailed questionnaires. The investigation involved two years of field work in 65 cities and 29 states, covering 569 voluntary agencies and 143 official agencies, and involving about 1,100 personal interviews. The voluntary agencies studied were selected from a total of over 20,000, meeting the definitions established for the study. The book represents an orderly presentation of the origins and growth of voluntary agencies, their functions, money-raising techniques, and their problems. In addition to the detailed discussion of voluntary health agencies, the authors have included special chapters on (1) professional organizations such as the American Medical Association and the American Dental Association, (2) the American National Red Cross, (3) volunteers, and (4) health activities of civic and welfare organizations.

The rural sociologist will be particularly interested in the chapter on "The Democratic Process at Work" where the authors discuss the methods of mobilizing local resources by the use of "advisory councils," "lay committees," and variations of the "block leader" plan. All students of social organization could read with great profit the authors' strong case for unification of voluntary health agencies especially at state and local levels. The multiplicity of "fund-raising" campaigns along with a lack of integration among the health agencies will ultimately lead to confusion and doubt on the part of the public. Moreover, as the authors rightly point out "the support which some of the voluntary health agencies received on a very large scale is in striking

contrast to the relative neglect of other fields."

The report is well documented and includes appendix materials on the agencies visited and studied, statistical tables, and a self-evaluation schedule for voluntary health agencies.

ROBERT L. MCNAMARA.

U. S. Public Health Service.

Scientific Social Surveys and Research. By Pauline V. Young. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1944. Pp. xxxvi + 619. \$3.00.

Interest in social research and social surveys will mount in the postwar years. Students preparing for all walks of life will need to know the value and methods of scientific social inquiry. Dr. Young's book, written in an interesting and challenging style, is an excellent medium by which these students can become acquainted with the background, objectives, content, and techniques of the social survey.

A careful distinction is drawn between social research and social surveys. Both may employ scientific methods but the former attempts to set forth generalizations that give meaning and understanding to the social order while the end product of the latter is social betterment. Charles Booth clearly used the social survey as an instrument to correct specific evils existing in the London of his day. Frederic Le Play combined social survey and social research in his study of the family budgets of European working people. Dr. Young traces the survey movement from these early beginnings through the "muckraking" days in the United States to Philip Klein's *A Social Study of Pittsburg*.

She has assembled points of view, illustrations, and concepts seldom found under a single cover. At one point she discusses scientific attitude. A few pages later appear detailed instructions on the preparation of a bibliography. Other topics include the case study and historical methods, the interview, questionnaire and schedule, documentary and personal sources of information, sociometric scales, and the collection, organization, and analysis of data. Dr. Calvin F.

Schmid has prepared sections dealing with statistical concepts and techniques, the ecological method in social research, and a very well illustrated chapter entitled "Graphic Presentation." Toward the end of the book are several chapters devoted to social institutions, cultural groups, and community life. These will be especially helpful for students lacking introductory courses in sociology. A carefully selected and extremely useful bibliography is given for each chapter.

Three shortcomings of the book are apparent to this reviewer. The dangers and pitfalls awaiting social researchers and social surveyors are not sufficiently emphasized. Only occasional words of caution have been inserted. Dr. Schmid has less than two pages devoted to common statistical errors. A more exhaustive treatment of causality and the principles of logic would help students avoid faulty reasoning and improper generalization. Secondly, the uniqueness of the different methods of social inquiry was overstressed. Case study and statistical methods were treated almost as mutually exclusive techniques. Actually statistical data sometimes can be analyzed by the case grouping method so that clusters of traits stand out and individual cases are not lost in the process of abstraction. Finally, the book has a definite urban accent. Nevertheless, rural sociologists will find *Scientific Social Surveys and Research* a valuable tool for instruction.

WALTER C. MCKAIN, JR.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

Economic Problems of Latin America.

Edited by Seymour E. Harris. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1944. Pp. xiv + 465. \$4.00.

Seventeen authors (most of them connected with the U. S. Office of Price Administration, the Office of Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, or the State Department) have contributed to this volume. It is divided into eighteen chapters, grouped into three parts. A listing of these brings out the general scope and nature of the book. Chapter I, "Introduction: Some Major

Issues," alone makes up Part I. Part II, "General Considerations," includes chapters on "Economic Problems of the Latin American Republics" by Frank A. Waring, "War and Postwar Agricultural Problems of Latin America" by L. A. Wheeler, "Central Banking and Monetary Management in Latin America" by Robert Triffin, "Fiscal Policy and the Budget" by Henry C. Wallich, "Price Stabilization Programs in Latin America" and "Exchanges and Prices" by Seymour E. Harris, and "Inter-American Trade Policy" by Henry Chalmers. Part III, "Special Country Studies," includes "Argentina" by Miron Burgin, "Bolivia" by William A. Neiswanger and James R. Nelson, "Brazil's Economy in the War and After" by Corwin D. Edwards, "Chile" by P. T. Ellsworth, "Colombia, with Particular Reference to Price Control" by Ben W. Lewis and Henry Beitcher, "Cuba: Sugar and Currency" by Henry C. Wallich, "Haiti" by Don D. Humphrey, "Mexico: with Special Reference to Its International Economic Relations" by Norman T. Ness, "Paraguay: with Particular Reference to Price Control" by George R. Taylor, and "Venezuela" by E. G. Bennion. There is no Conclusion but the contributors are identified in a few preliminary pages; and a short Appendix gives data on areas and populations of Latin American countries, along with a meager list of sources. A brief Index is also included.

A book of this kind is difficult to appraise. Many of the authors have thought it necessary to include some very elementary facts concerning the countries they were writing about. These data often seem strangely out of place alongside the highly technical economic jargon found in the same paragraphs. Some of the differences brought by the comparisons were reversed before the book got through the process of manufacturing. The accounts of many of the cases selected for purposes of illustration end just when the most significant changes got underway. On the whole, the editorial job was poorly done, errors in spelling are not a few, and typographical errors sometimes (for example, pp. 87, 96) completely destroy the

meaning of the sentences. Latin Americans will smile at the use of *colon* (for *colono*) as a designation for the Bolivian agricultural worker (p. 262). However, several of the chapters, and particularly numbers II, III and IV, give evidence that the authors were thoroughly conversant with the problems they were writing about.

T. LYNN SMITH.

Louisiana State University.

The Church in Our Town. By Rockwell C. Smith. New York: Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1945. Pp. 190. \$1.50.

This is a very readable little book. It discusses primarily the rural community. This it defines in terms of attitudes and way of life rather than in geographical boundaries or group sizes. It includes both small-town people and farmers. The book covers such topics as the framework of rural society, the family, neighborhood and community. It discusses rural organizations, village trade, education and welfare. The United Mine Workers Union is described because it is essentially a rural group. One brief chapter is given to the rural church and two chapters to phases of the relation of the church to the community.

This is not a book on methods but is an evaluation of the place and work of the church as a part of community life. It makes suggestions, however, as to what can be done about specific problems. These are brought in as illustrations of how churches have solved similar problems. This is good educational technique. A chapter on fitting the church to the community differs from the approach usually followed in the book by outlining methods of studying the community.

The source material used in the earlier chapters gives the impression that the book is one on a particular denomination in the community instead of religious institutions in general. More data on all church groups would have been helpful.

Some statements should have had more supporting data or been omitted. For example, in referring to farmer organizations it is said: "There has been a willingness

on their part . . . to sacrifice the general welfare, even in the midst of war, for the private welfare of a select group. Such a willingness defends its own position with the only possible ammunition — misrepresentation of facts."

This book is a real contribution to the literature of rural life. It should help rural church leaders to understand better the place of the church in rural life and to see better what the church can do in rural improvement.

PAUL L. VOGT.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

One Nation. By Wallace Stegner and the Editors of *Look*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945. Pp. vii + 340. \$3.75.

The purpose of this book as stated in the Foreword is "to present a treatment" of our racial and religious "minorities in picture-text which may be communicable to those of our fellow citizens who stand to profit most from its revelations." "The editorial point of view" of the book is "forthright" and "liberal" and is what one would expect from socially conscious journalism. The senior author is Professor of American literature. This work might be regarded as a popular counterpart of the more academic treatments on minority groups.

Seven racial and nationality groups, and two religious minorities found in the United States are described. These are the Negro, the Indian, the Mexican, the Filipino, the Japanese, the Chinese, the Hispano, and the Catholic and the Jew. Over three hundred pictures are integrated with the text in this presentation. Of the fourteen chapters, some typical headings are: "Legally Undesirable Heroes: The Filipino in America," "Lost Generation: The Pachuco of Los Angeles," and "The Trapdoor in the Ceiling: A Record of Negro Achievement." Sections dealing with the groups who are predominantly or totally rural and the chapter entitled "Black Wave: The Negro Migration Northward" would have special relevance for those interested in rural life.

This book might be used as supple-

mentary material in a course in minority groups by those teachers who consider some popularization and pictorial presentation desirable. It might serve to create interest and as a prelude to a more comprehensive, systematic and academic treatment of the subject.

HAROLD F. KAUFMAN.

University of Kentucky.

Country Flavor. By Haydn S. Pearson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Incorporated, 1945. Pp. 112. \$2.75.

Opening the book at random, one finds an excellent rustic photograph on the left page and a flavorsome word sketch, a kind of nature editorial, on the right page. The writing is nice, a little over-alliterative, but quite therapeutic to a nostalgic rural-urban migrant. The 75 pieces are selected from the author's contributions to the *New York Times*. It's a pleasant and a quiet book to come upon in this day of many tensions and commotions.

HOWARD W. BEERS.

University of Kentucky.

Seasonal Farm Labor in the United States. By Harry Schwartz. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945. Pp. 172. \$2.25.

Seemingly any monograph on seasonal farm labor in the United States is timely, no matter when its publication, for whether the times be good or bad, seasonal farm labor is a problem. In the volume here reviewed, Dr. Schwartz has added a valuable title to the already extensive bibliography on farm labor in the United States. Perhaps his chief contribution is his collection and synthesis into one compact volume of a mass of hitherto scattered data and ideas.

Were the work titled, "Social Economics of Seasonal Farm Labor in the United States," the reader would be given a more accurate idea of the content of the volume. Schwartz consistently and skillfully interprets the problem of seasonal farm labor from the viewpoint of economics, while retaining a balanced approach which recog-

nizes the human beings and social relationships involved.

The author stresses the important fact that the seasonal farm labor force typically has been a residual group, "residual in the sense that a large fraction of its members would have preferred non-farm employment, and took agricultural jobs only because of the absence of alternative work."

Schwartz points also to the influence of technology; "Much of the seasonal labor difficulty faced by American agriculture in the two decades before Pearl Harbor resulted from the much more rapid development of machines and techniques for handling the preparation of the soil, the sowing of crops, and cultivation than of machines and techniques for taking in the harvest."

In his final chapter the author speculates on the postwar prospects for seasonal farm labor. Weighing various factors influencing supply and demand, including the possibility of governmental intervention in more crops, and keeping an historical perspective, the author comes to the pessimistic, but probably realistic conclusion, that "as in the past, therefore, the chief postwar hope for farm workers must rest on the maintenance of nonfarm prosperity and of opportunities for escape from agricultural employment."

Space forbids comment on more details, including Schwartz's review of efforts to unionize agricultural workers, and employer resistance to such efforts. Although there is little that is essentially new in this work, it is decidedly worthwhile as a reference work, and should be on the required reading list of any rural sociology course which purports to treat the topic of farm labor. It is well-written and easily read by the non-specialist. It should be in the library of any college located in a state in which seasonal farm labor is a problem. While limited in its area of treatment, because of war-induced causes, the book is nonetheless adequate to give a general over-all picture of the problem of seasonal farm labor.

CARL F. REUSS.

Capital University.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED

- One Foot on the Soil.* By Paul W. Wager. University, Alabama: Bureau of Public Administration, University of Alabama, 1945. Pp. xiv + 230.
- Education for Rural America.* By Floyd W. Reeves. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. 213. \$2.50.
- Post-War Jobs.* Edited by Nelson and Henrietta Poynter. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1945. Pp. 211. Cloth bound, \$2.50. Paper bound, \$2.00.
- A Partisan Guide to the Jewish Problem.* By Milton Steinberg. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1945. Pp. 308. \$3.00.
- Freedom Under Planning.* By Barbara Wootton. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1945. Pp. vii + 180. \$2.00.
- Tomorrow's Trade.* By Stuart Chase. New York: The Twentieth Century Fund, 1945. Pp. x + 156. \$1.00.
- The World's Hunger.* By Frank A. Pearson and Floyd A. Harper. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1945. Pp. 90. \$1.50.
- The Wages of Farm and Factory Laborers, 1914-1944.* By Daniel J. Ahearn, Jr. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945. Pp. 245. \$3.00.
- United For Freedom.* Edited by Leo R. Ward. Milwaukee: The Bruce Publishing Company, 1945. Pp. vii + 264. \$2.50.
- The Family.* By Ernest W. Burgess and Harvey J. Locke. New York: American Book Company, 1945. Pp. xvi + 800. \$4.25.
- Economic Progress and Social Security.* By A. G. B. Fisher. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. xii + 362. \$5.00.
- 100% Money.* By Irving Fisher. New Haven, Connecticut: The City Printing Company, 1946. Pp. 257. \$1.00.
- Problems of the Countryside.* By C. S. Orwin. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1946. Pp. 111. \$1.25.
- One Man.* By P. O. Davis. Auburn: The Alabama Polytechnic Institute, 1945. Pp. 125.
- North Dakota Weather and The Rural Economy.* By J. M. Gillette. Bismark, North Dakota: State Historical Society of North Dakota, 1945. Pp. 98. \$.75.
- A Business of My Own.* By Arthur E. Morgan. Yellow Springs, Ohio: Community Service, Incorporated, 1945. Pp. 160. \$0.75.
- Supervising People.* By George D. Halsey. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. Pp. x + 233. \$3.00.
- Education for Action.* By Willard W. Beatty. Chicago: Education Division United States Indian Service, 1944. Pp. 347. \$2.00.
- Living Costs in World War II.* By Philip Murray and R. J. Thomas. Washington: Congress of Industrial Organizations, 1944. Pp. 236.
- The Correspondence of Bayard Taylor and Paul Hamilton Hayne.* Edited by Charles Duffy. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1945. Pp. ix + 111. \$2.00.
- Post-War Markets.* Edited by E. Jay Howenstein. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1945. Pp. vii + 184. Cloth bound, \$2.50. Paper bound, \$2.00.

National Health Agencies. By Harold M. Cavins. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1945. Pp. 251. \$3.00.

Nationalities and National Minorities. By Oscar I. Janowsky. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1945. Pp. xix + 232. \$2.75.

NEWS NOTES AND ANNOUNCEMENTS

Edited by Leland B. Tate

BARNARD COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY: John Useem recently returned from the South Pacific where he served as a member of Admiral Nimitz's staff and later as military governor of Palau. Since his release from the Navy he has been a visiting lecturer here in sociology. He spent three years in the Navy and participated in several invasions of the former Japanese mandates.

IOWA STATE COLLEGE: Dr. Joseph B. Gittler has joined the staff of Iowa State College as Associate Professor of Sociology. He will teach theory and develop the sociology of technology. He has his Ph.D. from the University of Chicago, was formerly Professor of Sociology at the University of Georgia, spent one year as Research Associate with the Virginia State Planning Board, and for the past two years has been Professor and Head of Sociology at Drake University. His most recent publication is *Virginia's People: A Cultural Panorama*, Population Study Report No. 5, Virginia State Planning Board, 1944.

MICHIGAN STATE COLLEGE: Solon Kimball, Ph.D., Harvard, recently joined the staff of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology and the Michigan State College Experiment Station, as Associate Professor. He will devote half time to teaching and half time to research; hence, is the first anthropologist to be employed by a land-grant college under this arrangement. He came to Michigan State College from the War Location Authority where he worked on the Navajo Reservation as joint

employee of the Soil Conservation and Indian Services, and is now engaged in making several case studies of agricultural extension projects. He is joint author of *The Family and Community in Ireland*.

Frederick Thaden was granted nine months leave from teaching and research beginning last October. He plans to spend his leave traveling and studying, principally in the Southwest. The map resulting from his Purnell project, "The Delineation of Ethnic and Religious Groups in Michigan," is now in the publication stage.

Walter Firey's doctor's dissertation, *The Role of Social Values in Land Use Patterns of Central Boston*, is being published by the Harvard University Press. Firey, who is a joint staff member of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology and the Department of Effective Living also does research in the Agricultural Experiment Station. He is now making a social ecological analysis of three neighborhoods in the congested fringe area of Flint.

Richard Myers, Ph.D. University of Michigan, and formerly instructor there in Sociology, joined the staff last September. He teaches a course entitled, "Social Aspects of Modern Industrialism."

Paul Honigsheim spent most of last summer working at the University of Chicago on his *Sociology of Music* and special monographs commemorating the 25th anniversary of Max Weber's death.

Chas. Loomis, Head of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, was on a War Department assignment in the Ameri-

can, French, and British zones of occupation in Germany during part of the past year.

OKLAHOMA AGRICULTURAL AND MECHANICAL COLLEGE: Dr. William H. Sewell (on leave with the U. S. Naval Reserve and recently returned to the United States from Japan where he assisted in conducting a study of the influence of bombing upon the morale of the Japanese) has resigned his position as professor of rural sociology to become associate professor of rural sociology at the University of Wisconsin upon his separation from the Navy. Sewell's work here culminated in the development of his scale for the measurement of the socioeconomic status of farm families in Oklahoma.

Paul B. Foreman, University of Mississippi and recently Captain A.G.D. U. S. Army, has accepted the position of Professor of Sociology effective February 1, 1946. Dr. Foreman will direct the teaching of the introductory course in general sociology and will conduct advanced courses and research on conflict and minority groups.

Dr. James F. Page, Professor of Sociology, will spend the spring semester on leave teaching courses in criminology and race problems at the University of Arizona.

The Social Science Research Council is publishing the research memorandum, *Social Research on Health*, prepared under the auspices of the Southern Regional Committee, of which Dean Raymond D. Thomas is chairman, in February of this year. This memorandum was written by O. D. Duncan with the assistance of a work group composed of social scientists from various fields working mainly in southern colleges and universities during the war years.

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA: The work of Sociology, Anthropology, and Social Work at the University of North Dakota is carried on in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology, and the Division of Social Work, the latter being a part of the former.

J. M. Gillette is titular head of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology and has been Research Professor since the

beginning of the academic year, 1943-44. Professor T. W. Cape is Director of the Division of Social Work. His instructional work is in sociology and anthropology. Associate Professor A. L. Lincoln, M.A. in Social Work, University of Oklahoma, instructs in social work courses, supervises case work, and advises in social work matters in the state at large. K. T. Wiltse, M.A. in Social Work, University of Chicago, is instructor in social work. Mrs. Maude Barnes, Juvenile Commissioner in the northeast district of the state, gives a course in social work. An additional staff member is to be added in sociology and anthropology.

J. M. Gillette, Ph.D. University of Chicago, has been at the head of Sociology in the institution since 1907 and is in his 39th year of service. His research work for the year 1943-44 was devoted to Mounds and Mound Builders of the United States, the results having been published in the organ of the North Dakota State Historical Society in 1944. His research efforts of 1944-45 were devoted to North Dakota weather and its influence on the rural economy of the state. The final paper was published in *North Dakota History*, January-June, double number, 1945. A reprint appeared as *NORTH DAKOTA WEATHER AND THE RURAL ECONOMY*, Bulletin 11, Department of Sociology and Anthropology, the University of North Dakota. His present research undertaking is devoted to the reasons and causes of farm enlargement in North Dakota. This will appear as Bulletin 12 of the Department of Sociology and Anthropology.

UNIVERSITY OF PUERTO RICO: Chancellor Jaime Benitez announces the appointment of Clarence Senior, formerly Chief Foreign Economic Specialist, Bureau of Areas, Foreign Economic Administration, as Visiting Professor of Social Science and Acting Director of the Social Science Research Center. Mr. Senior will make a study of land redistribution program in addition to teaching.

BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY: Dr. Harold T. Christensen, Department Head, has returned to the campus after one year's leave

of absence, during which time he was employed by the War Food Administration in the Office of Labor, Washington, D. C., and by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics as Regional Leader for the northeastern area of the Division of Farm Population and Rural Welfare.

Ariel S. Ballif has been awarded the Doctor of Philosophy degree by the University of Southern California. His dissertation was on the subject "An analysis of the Behavior of Rural People on Relief in Utah County, Utah, during the Years 1932-1943." Dr. Ballif, who recently was Relocation Adjustment Advisor for the inter-mountain

area of the War Relocation Authority, resumed his position at Brigham Young University on January 1.

John C. Swenson, Professor Emeritus, is assisting with special courses for upper division and graduate students.

Professors Christensen and Ballif have both been appointed members of a special Utah Legislative Tax Study Committee with special assignments in the field of public welfare. After a somewhat comprehensive and extensive study of the tax system and sources of revenue in the state, the committee will make recommendations to the legislature.

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FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF THE RURAL SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY 1945

Receipts

Balance from Polson		\$ 721.99
Memberships paid to Tate:		
1 part payment of 50¢	\$.50	
25 Student memberships @ \$2.00	50.00	
3 part payments @ \$2.50	7.50	
141 Memberships @ \$3.00	423.00	
1 Joint membership @ \$3.50	3.50	
2 Contributing memberships @ \$5.00 and \$10.00	15.00	499.50
Total		<u>\$1,221.49</u>

Expenditures

Rural Sociology—C. H. Hamilton		
Payment for subscriptions to the Journal	\$ 450.00	
Postage and envelopes	47.50	
Printing	21.75	
		<u>\$ 519.25</u>
Gross Balance	\$ 702.24	
Less account due for subscriptions to Journal	530.00	
Petite Balance	\$ 172.24	
Plus account receivable from sale of back issues of Journal	62.77	
Potential Balance	<u>\$ 235.01</u>	

FINANCIAL STATEMENT OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY

By the Managing Editor

Fiscal Year January 1, to December 31, 1945

Receipts

Cash on hand January 1, 1945	\$1,438.35
From Rural Sociological Society on 1944 business (Polson) ...	19.75
From Rural Sociological Society on 1945 business (Tate)	980.00
General subscriptions and sales	1,366.57
Reprint sales to authors	199.48
Sales of back numbers for the Society	69.75
Subsidy from North Carolina State College	250.00
Total Income	<u>\$4,323.90</u>

Expenditures

Printing JOURNAL	\$2,009.31*
Reprints	201.54
Postage and other communications	147.00
Stationery and advertizing	123.35
Other supplies	18.50
Clerical help on typing and mailing JOURNAL	65.10
Travel, Managing Editor	91.37
Miscellaneous Printing	19.28
To the Society on 1944 business (Polson)	51.51
To the Society on 1945 business (Tate)	68.50
To the Society on sale of back numbers	62.77
Educational Press Membership	5.00
Drayage	3.00
Refund on a subscription	2.75
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Total expenditures	\$2,868.98
Cash on hand December 31, 1945	\$1,454.92**
Total Income	\$4,323.90
Cash on hand December 31, 1945	\$1,454.92**

* Includes December, 1944 issue.

** Includes \$675.00 for 1946 subscriptions.

CLASSIFICATION OF 1945 MEMBERSHIP

348 Active memberships
40 Student memberships
1 Honorary membership
2 Contributing memberships
1 Joint membership
7 Military memberships

399 Total memberships*

* The total memberships in 1944 were 358; in 1943, 320; in 1942, 389.

CIRCULATION OF THE JOURNAL

	1944	1945
Total Circulation for December	890	968
Members, domestic	351	380
Members, foreign	15*	19
Libraries, domestic	281	317
Libraries, foreign	49	33
Subscribers, domestic	46	55
Subscribers, foreign	2	12
Exchanges, domestic	64	65
Complimentary, domestic	58	48
Complimentary, foreign	3	3
Exchanges, foreign	21	23
Service men	—	13

* Included 3 complimentary military memberships.

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL REVIEW

The official journal of the AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY

Published bi-monthly

PARTIAL CONTENTS, AUGUST 1945 (Volume 10, Number 4)

- IS A PSYCHIATRIC INTERPRETATION OF THE GERMAN
ENIGMA NECESSARY? *Theodore Abel*
THE ADJUSTMENT OF VETERANS TO CIVILIAN LIFE. *Lt. Wilbur B. Brookover, USNR*
ESTATES, SOCIAL CLASSES, AND POLITICAL CLASSES..... *Oliver Cromwell Cox*
SOME OBSERVATIONS ON THE DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILY ALLOWANCE BENEFITS
IN WORLD WAR II. *Major Harry Grossman, FD and Lt. Robert H. Cole, FD*
A RELIABLE SCALE OF VALUE JUDGMENTS..... *Hornell Hart*
THE RELATION OF ECOLOGICAL LOCATION TO STATUS POSITION AND
HOUSING OF ETHNIC MINORITIES..... *Paul K. Hatt*
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Journal of Farm Economics

PUBLISHED BY *The American Farm Economic Association*

Editor: WARREN C. WAITE

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, UNIVERSITY FARM, ST. PAUL 8, MINNESOTA

Volume XXVII

NOVEMBER, 1945

Number 4

This issue contains the award essays from the Agricultural Price Policy Contest conducted by the Association:

- First Award Essay*..... *W. H. NICHOLLS*
Second Award Essay..... *D. GALE JOHNSON*
Third Award Essay..... *FREDERICK V. WAUGH*
Honorable Mention Essays by: George W. Barr, Merrill K. Bennett, Gordon P. Boals,
Karl Brandt, Willard W. Cochrane, R. J. Eggert, Paul A. Eke, Carl C. Farrington,
Rudolph K. Froker, Charles D. Hyson, Adlowe L. Larson, James G. Maddox,
Rainer Schickele, Geoffrey Shepherd, Lawrence Simerl.

This Journal, a quarterly, contains in addition, notes, reviews of books and articles, and a list of recent publications and is published in February, May, August, and November by the American Farm Economic Association. Yearly subscription, \$5.00.

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University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

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COLONIAL AND MINORITY ISSUES IN THE POST WAR WORLD.

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